The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 5, 1894.

The Week.

THE prompt action of Attorney-General Olney in putting forth all the powers of the law to move the United States mails is worthy of the highest praise. It stands, too, in remarkable contrast to the John Sherman interview published in the Sunday newspapers, in which the Ohio Senator makes an attack on the Pullman Car Company as a grinding monopoly. That this interview is an encouragement to rioters and a text for anarchists is perfectly evident. If we had not been led by long experience to expect such summersaults from Mr. Sherman in critical times, we should think that he had suddenly gone crazy, "This matter has no reference whatever to the strike," he says. Hasn't it? With twenty-two railroads in the hands of rioters at Chicago and vicinity, with all the railroads on the Pacific coast similarly situated by reason of the Pullman boycott, does Mr. Sherman think that his attack on the company will have no bearing on the strike? He can hardly be so simple as that. The rioters will assume at once that Mr. Sherman is on their side, and the public will assume that he intended the result which will follow.

The matter of his talk is as devoid of logic as it is ill timed. He says that "the Pullman Company charges each railroad running its cars a cent a mile for every car, and this goes into the pockets of the Pullmans in addition to the rates paid by the passengers." This, as he puts it, is a great public grievance, as though the railroads did not know how to manage their own business, but needed Sherman or Debs to protect them against the extortions of Pullman. Another sad thing is "the system of tipping the employees." This, Mr. Sherman thinks, should be discontinued, but, reflecting that these employees also have votes, he adds that they "are not paid enough by the company; if they were paid adequate salaries, the passengers would not be expected to come forward to help them out." Poor passengers, poor porters! how they must thank Mr. Sherman for his statesmanlike efforts to go to the root of the trouble. Debs and his followers, however, seem to take more stock in Kyle than they do in Sherman, for they have telegraphed to their friends to support the Kyle bill to stop running Pullman cars on mail trains, and they have not rendered equal homage to Mr. Sherman's resolution to investigate sleeping-cars.

The man Debs who is managing the Pullman boycott has issued a manifesto, which is so much like the proclamations of Martin Irons in the great Southwestern strike that we could fancy that Irons was in control of the literary bureau. "The struggle with the Pullman Company," says Debs, "has developed into a contest between the producing classes and the money power of the country." That is a sonorous period. He then gives his version of the first trouble with the Pullman Company, but does not give any particulars. He deals with the matter in a broad, general way so as to palm off the largest number of lies without detection—again in the style of Martin Irons. For example, Mr. Pullman said that his company had taken a contract for 55 passenger-cars for the Long Island Railroad at $300 per car less than cost, in order to keep the men employed, and that there was only 60 days' work in sight at any rate of pay whatever. Does Debs dispute this particular fact? Not at all. But he throws off another sonorous paragraph about the employees "mortgaging their bodies and souls as well as their children's to that heartless corporation." Then he tells how the Pullman strike became a general war against the railroads. By skilfully turning it around, end for end, he makes it appear that the railroads began it by insisting upon hauling Pullman cars. "The railway corporations," he says, "through the General Managers' Association, came to the rescue, and in a series of whereases declared to the world that they would go into partnership with Pullman, so to speak, and stand by him in his devilish work of *starving his employees to death*." It is impossible that such lies should deceive anybody, but we shall probably have to cope with them in the old-fashioned way—that is, by delaying and expostulating and waiting for the rioters to gain strength and confidence till they begin to commit murder and arson, and then sending the militia to shoot them down and drive Debs into the seclusion of some liquor saloon, where Irons finally terminated his career as a Knight of Labor.

The test vote on the income tax in the Senate on Thursday proves those to have been right who have asserted that this tax was stronger than any measure of its class before Congress. No tariff law could be drawn which would alienate but four Democratic votes and would win ten Republican votes. That fully one-quarter of the Republican vote should have been cast for the income tax shows how idle it is to expect its repeal at the hands of the Republican party. It is only twenty-two years ago that, as Senator Teller pointed out, twenty-five Republican Senators went on record in favor of the income tax. Whether we like it or not, therefore, we must admit the cold fact that the income tax has come, and probably has come to stay. Recognized by economists as, theoretically, a just and even an ideal tax, it has cunningly been put into a form to give it the greatest possible strength with the masses of a democratic country. Their inevitable answer to all objections is that made by the chairman of the Maine Democratic convention the other day, who said: "Give me the income, and I'll not quarrel about the tax." The logical outcome of that answer is spoliation, but democracy is not careful to be logical, and property has immense power on the defensive. Meanwhile, it must be said that many of the crudities of the law as it passed the House have been clipped off in the Senate. The exemptions made in favor of savings banks, of mutual-insurance companies, and of building and loan associations break the force of the severest attacks made on the law.

It is becoming evident that the silver planks which are finding their way into the platforms of Republican State conventions are dictated by the congressional managers of the party in Washington. None of these deliverances has caused so much surprise as the declaration in favor of a "continued and extended use of silver in our circulation," which was made by the Republicans of Vermont, since the Green Mountain State is one which has never had the slightest sympathy with the silver craze. How did such a plank get into the platform? The Rutland *Herald*, a prominent Republican newspaper, says that it was not inserted in response to any sentiment in its favor among the delegates; on the contrary, it was read when members were hurrying from the hall to catch trains, and was neither considered nor even heard by the members of the convention. Moreover, the *Herald* declares that "it does not represent the Republican party belief in Vermont," and that "it actually misrepresents the home feeling." It declares its conviction that the proposed policy is not only wrong but foolish, and it believes that if the whole party goes that way, it will meet with disaster.

Senator Cameron wrote a terrible letter to the national convention of the Republican Leagues at Denver on June 26. It appears that "the world stands on the edge of revolution, social and political," but, strange to say, "every one shrinks from it." Well, what is

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the revolution to be about? About "the struggle between gold and silver." Why is this "struggle" so alarming? Because "the single gold standard seems to be working ruin with a violence nothing can stand." "Almost the whole world," or, to speak more precisely, "nine-tenths of mankind," is of this way of thinking. Well, why does "almost the whole world," or "nine-tenths of mankind," submit to all this state of things? Why do they watch "gold working ruin with violence"? Why do they "stand on the edge of political and social revolution" and yet shrink from it? Simply because "the bankers of London have said that we must submit, and we have submitted." As Mr. Cameron well remarks, "So strange a spectacle has never been seen in our history." "Something," he adds, "then, must be decided, and quickly, for delay itself is likely to be decision." This bedlamite nonsense, according to the *Tribune's* special report, was received by the Western delegations with transports of enthusiasm. "They went fairly wild with joy." We admonish the business men of the country, East, West, and South, who last year forced the Sherman repeal bill through both houses of Congress, that the silver question is of far more consequence than any tariff question or any party question, and that they cannot safely withdraw their attention from it at any time.

It is risky business in these days to say a good word for either party as to its financial position. The Democrats of Pennsylvania on June 27 adopted a resolution on the money question which was so sound, and so fully in harmony with the traditions of the party, that it seemed as though the organization might be recovering its senses under the leadership of President Cleveland's administration, whose conduct was warmly endorsed. But the next day the Arkansas Democrats made a deliverance on this question which was simply shocking. The committee on resolutions reported a platform which called for "the free and unlimited coinage of both silver and gold at a ratio of sixteen to one." An amendment was proposed to substitute for this the words "free coinage without discriminating against either metal, upon such rates as shall insure the maintenance of a parity of both metals," but it was rejected by a vote of 359 to 92. Appropriately enough, after so unblushing a declaration in favor of cheap money, the convention treated with contempt another resolution endorsing the administration of President Cleveland. As he stands for sound money, praise from such a convention would have been hypocritical at best, and it is much to be preferred that the men who want to cheat their creditors should show exactly what they think about an official who stands for honesty. Even Michigan makes no better showing than Arkansas. The Democratic convention in the former State on Thursday declared in favor of free coinage "at a ratio that will permit the debtors to pay their debts upon the same basis in which they were contracted," and demanded that all the circulating medium be hereafter issued under the acts of Congress "and such amendments as the business wants of the country may require, and it shall be full legal tender." This is nothing short of calling for soft money in unlimited quantities. Where is this sort of thing going to end? Are both of the old parties destined to fall under the control of the silver fanatics?

New Mexico was all but admitted to the Union as a State twenty years ago. At that time the Republicans controlled both branches of Congress by large majorities, and they favored the admission of the Territory because they thought it would be carried by their party. In the Forty-third Congress a bill looking in this direction passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 160 to 54. The Senate was as strongly in favor of it, 32 voting for the bill and only 11 against it. But a slight amendment had been made by the Senate, which sent the bill back to the House, where the pressure of business in the closing days of the session enabled its opponents to block its final passage. But for this hitch New Mexico would now be a State of twenty years' standing. The House has now voted for its admission, as it has already done in the case of Arizona and Utah. When these are brought in, there will be forty-seven States and ninety-four Senators. These States contained in 1890 a population of 61,202,896. Seven of the forty-seven had in all less than three-quarters of a million, as follows:

Arizona	59,620
Idaho	84,385
Montana	132,159
Nevada	45,761
New Mexico	153,593
Utah	207,905
Wyoming	60,705
	744,128

In other words, less than one-eightieth of the country's population is found in this mountainous section, and yet these seven thinly settled States will have 14 out of 94 Senators, one-seventh of the upper branch.

Nor is this the worst of it. A majority of such a Senate would be 48, and here is almost one-third of that majority in the 14 men sent by this thinly settled region. On any question in which they have a common interest, as in mining, they need but 34 out of the remaining 80 to control the body, and half of these could be found in their immediate neighbors—Colorado, Nebraska, Kansas, and the two Dakotas on the east, and Washington, Oregon, and California on the west. In other words, the region west of the Missouri River, with only about six of the more than sixty millions, or one-tenth, will have 30 of the 94 Senators, or almost two-thirds of a majority. We say nothing about the character of the Senators from these new States. It does not look well for States which send Hills and Murphys, Quays and Camerons, to criticise the choice of others. We do not speak of the unsettling of the old order of things in the Senate as regards rules and traditions by so large an addition to its numbers. That can be arranged by a needed reform of the methods of procedure. But we can never deprive the sage-brush and mining-camp States of their equal representation in the Senate, when once they get it.

It is announced that the controversy over the World's Fair medal has been "settled" by the adoption by Secretary Carlisle of a "composite design"; Mr. St. Gaudens's original design for the obverse being allowed to remain, while the much offending nude figure on the reverse is to be replaced by a very "composite" design indeed, created by Mr. Barber, the designer of our present silver coinage. Whether such a preposterous "settlement" as this will be allowed to stay settled, remains to be seen. It does not seem to have occurred to the settlers that Mr. St. Gaudens might object, with some show of reason, in our humble opinion, to being bracketed in this way with a vastly inferior designer, and might insist on the Government's taking all of his design or none. The whole chapter of its dealings with this distinguished artist is a disgraceful one, but this last action is of a coolness that takes one's breath away. We do not know whether the law affords any protection to an artist from this sort of mutilation of his work, but if it does not, it ought to. The joy of our artists over the passage by the Senate of the free-art clause of the tariff bill, thus removing one stigma from our civilization, is likely to be somewhat dashed by this revelation that the days of barbarism are not yet over.

Why has such a profound silence fallen on the expounders of constitutional liberty in Hawaii? A commentary is urgently required on the present situation in the islands. We are not up to it ourselves, and can only state the facts. A provisional government, after having held office for sixteen months without a shadow of popular warrant, is at last shamed into calling a "constitutional convention" to establish permanent representative institutions. It fixes up a plan by which no one can vote for delegates, or be a member of the convention, without taking an oath of allegiance to itself, and by which, further-

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more, an absolute majority of the convention is to be made up of members of the provisional government taking seats ex officio. Then they submit their ready-made constitution, adopt it by their own votes, promulgate it without submission to popular vote, and at once proceed to violate it by themselves naming a President for six years. Now it must be possible in some way to reconcile such proceedings with the Spirit of '76, and the Cradle of Liberty, and all the other sacred and patriotic things which we have been told have set up for themselves in Hawaii; but the official defenders of the Hawaiian brand of republicanism do not tell us how. We hope they will not be deterred by any little circumstance like the fact that they have denounced the Queen for the same thing that the patriots are now doing.

Prof. Laughlin of Chicago contributes to the *Atlantic Monthly* for July a sketch of the scheme for monetary reform in Santo Domingo, which has just gone into operation, that contains a good deal of interest to every student of the currency question. As will be remembered, the Dominican Government, seeing its income, with a silver currency, diminishing with the value of silver, and domestic bankruptcy impending, employed a commission, of which Prof. Laughlin was the head, to devise a new and safe monetary system. The scheme prepared changes the currency system directly from a silver to a gold basis. The monetary unit of the country is a gold dollar of the same value as the American gold dollar. The gold coins are to be, however, only of the denominations of $5, $10, and $20; a silver dollar of 380 grains to supply the smaller currency. All the silver coins are to be exchangeable at their face value for Dominican gold coins, and all the coins are to be minted and issued by a "fiscal agency" created by the Government. Both bimetallists and monometallists have told us that gold is the currency for rich and powerful, and silver for small and weak communities, but here we see a little republic, whose total area is only twice that of the State of New Jersey, and whose total population scarcely equals that of Colorado, accepting the gold basis as the one way of escape from financial ruin. The Mexican dollars which formed the money of account on that island, fluctuated in value so much that sometimes it took one hundred and eighty-five and sometimes two hundred of them to equal one hundred dollars in gold. The new Dominican system was enacted last March and went into effect on June 1. Its practical operation will be an interesting subject for study, but there can be no doubt of its success.

We hear much of the agricultural depression in this country, but it is doubtful if the most exaggerated accounts can equal the bare facts in regard to a farming region almost within walking distance of the Bank of England. A report on the agricultural crisis in Essex has lately been made public, in which is set forth a terrible story of abandoned farms and ruined farm buildings, of bankrupt landlords and starving laborers. Thousands of acres more will be left tenantless this year if the times do not mend, and if anything like the number of farmers who have served notices to quit act upon them. Specimen cases are given to show the extraordinary depression. A farm of 638 acres, which rented for $3,800 in 1875, brought only $2,300 per year from 1883 to 1886, and for the last five years has been let for *one pound* per annum—the tenant to pay the tithe, amounting to about $700. A farm of 600 acres (half under cultivation), which was bought in 1875 for $40,000, sold in 1885 for $2,100. The prime cause of such a disastrous downfall is the drop in the price of wheat. Essex is a wheat-growing county, and not easily adapted to market-gardening or dairying. Then the burden of taxation is crushing, in many cases the tithes being far greater than the rent. The tithe per acre and per capita seems to be peculiarly heavy in Essex, being four or five times what it is in several other counties. It is generally admitted that relief can come only by lightening taxation and diversifying crops; no sane person in England any longer talks about the possibility of shutting out foreign competition in agriculture.

Only a few days before Carnot's assassination a leading French authority on criminal law published an article on anarchist crimes. In it he took the view that criminal anarchism is nothing more nor less than a form of the vendetta—a form, of course, enormously magnified. The vengeful Corsican was satisfied with killing a single enemy, or, at most, all his enemy's family, while the dynamiter's rage is directed against a whole class of society. Herein, says M. Tarde, lies the weakness of society's defence against the anarchists. Society can seize and hang only the individual, leaving untouched the collective hatred of government and the collective assault upon it. If the epidemic of anarchist crimes continues, this French lawyer thinks, we shall have to meet it by "retrograding to the penal methods of primitive times"—that is, by applying the vendetta to anarchists themselves, or at least holding a certain number of them as hostages for the good behavior of the rest. All this is more curious than practical. There is no brand on anarchists to mark them off from the rest of mankind; and after we had killed off or imprisoned all that were known, our most unsuspected neighbors might take to throwing bombs or poniarding the mayor. There seems little prospect of permanent relief, in fact, except in steadily demonstrating that all the bombs on earth will not reform society, and that there will always be officials left to string up the bomb-throwers as fast as they come on. This, in time, will rob the bomb of its attractiveness as an instrument of political reform.

M. Stambuloff, the Bulgarian ex-premier, has been airing his grievances in an interview in the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*. He complained of the ingratitude of his country, but assured Prince Ferdinand of his continued support, while reserving the right to oppose as a private citizen the new ministers, who "lack the ability to render the future of Bulgaria secure." M. Natchovitch, the new minister of foreign affairs, retaliates in the same paper with a frank and thorough arraignment of M. Stambuloff. He admits that Stambuloff did wonders in the beginning of his career, but says that much of the credit is due to the very able ministers with whom he surrounded himself, and who are all in office to-day. While these men were actuated by the loftiest patriotism, Stambuloff was consumed by personal ambition. On the accession of Prince Ferdinand, Stambuloff had to exchange the rôle of regent for that of constitutional minister—a bitter pill to swallow for a man "whose ideal of a statesman was a Turkish pasha." With his dissatisfaction his tyranny increased. Absolutely intolerant of criticism, he ruled Government officials and judges as well as the Sobranye with an iron hand. He manipulated elections solely in his own interest, "choosing his candidates personally, and ordering the chiefs of police to secure their election." Passing from the past to the present, M. Natchovitch promises that the cabinet in the first place will institute economic and financial reforms—in other words, that it will try to avoid a deficit. The Sobranye is to be dissolved, and elections are not to be interfered with by the Government. Russian influence, M. Natchovitch declares, is waning, in consequence of the doings of the Russian officials in Bulgaria, "who acquitted themselves of their task in the worst possible manner." However, the new ministry will "not needlessly wound Russian sensibilities." The Russian press, in commenting upon the situation in Bulgaria, professes to derive considerable comfort from the fall of Stambuloff. The *Neue Freie Presse* itself takes a very calm view of the situation, having full confidence in the prudence of Count Kálnoky, who brought about the independence of Bulgaria, while cultivating amicable relations with Russia.

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A RETROSPECT.

THE adjournment of the Lexow committee until September seems to furnish a suitable occasion for bringing to public remembrance the extraordinary drama of which the investigation by this committee is the dénouement. The election of Grant in 1888 was one of the most important events in the history of New York, for he was distinctly a new kind of mayor. His novelty did not consist in his being a Tammany mayor, for there had been Tammany mayors before him. But they had, as had all mayors, been business men of greater or less prominence; men who had become conspicuous by following some reputable calling, and had thus given the public some guarantees of honesty and fidelity. His competitor, Mr. Hewitt, was not only a well-known merchant, but a man of real eminence in other fields, and had already served one term in the mayoral office, in spite of some mistakes, with real distinction. His defeat and Grant's election were accomplished by the old device of running a "straight Republican ticket," Mr. Erhardt having been nominated, to use "Johnny" Brodsky's acute remark, as a "running mate to Grant."

Grant's peculiarity lay in the fact that he came from an entirely new class, the obscure and liquor-dealing youth of the city. He was entirely unknown to the business world, or to any other world. He was young, had inherited some fortune from a liquor-dealing father, but had failed to acquire anything that could be called an education. He had been given the shrievalty by Tammany in order to reimburse him for electioneering losses when he ran against Mr. Grace in 1884, and had administered it in such a way as to call down upon himself subsequently a scathing presentment from the grand jury. What was most important was, however, that he represented, as no mayoral candidate had ever done before, what may be called the criminal and semi-criminal population of the city—the brothel-keepers and gamblers, the ward politicians, the corrupt police, and the large army of ignorant Irish, Germans, Bohemians, and Russians who are controlled by the police, constituting altogether the force with which Tammany ever since Tweed's day has contended for the possession of the municipal government. The nature of this force was at that time very well understood and had been fully described.

One would have expected that, under these circumstances, the Republicans would have refrained from running a candidate, and that genuine alarm would have been diffused among the taxpaying classes by Grant's election. But nothing of the kind happened. What did happen was extremely curious. A wave of hope and satisfaction with the new régime actually seemed to pass over the well-to-do classes. Grant received, if not a cordial, a well-marked welcome. He even obtained "social recognition." Attempts were made to make him a diner-out, and he "opened a ball" with Mrs. Astor. To people who asked him naïvely what kind of mayor he was going to be, he answered that "if he didn't prove a good mayor, it would be because he did not know how," and the word was passed round with congratulations. In fact, during the two months between his election and his assumption of office, there arose a belief that he was the coming man of a better era, and we were mysteriously assured that now at last we should have good government, for here was a mayor who had the masses behind him, and therefore could do what he pleased—"the masses" being the criminal and semi-criminal population aforesaid. Grant himself dexterously fostered the prevailing delusion by issuing a sort of manifesto in which he promised to select appointees for all vacancies "from the highest order of citizenship which the county affords." This was a very grateful announcement, because he was the first Tammany mayor to enjoy the absolute power of appointment, without the concurrence of the Board of Aldermen, which had been conceded to the mayor in 1884.

To crown all, he and his confederates in some manner procured the insertion in *Harper's Weekly*, Tammany's deadliest opponent in the Tweed days, of a long article announcing the appearance of a "New Tammany," with entirely new spirit and aims, governed by a "big four," consisting of Croker, Gilroy, Grant, and Cockran, whose portraits accompanied the article. This appeared July 13, 1889, after Grant had been some months in office. In it Croker owes his "preëminence" to "his political sagacity, political honesty, great knowledge of individuals, and spotless personal integrity," and "direct, downright strength of purpose." Cockran owes much to "his handsome presence, polished manners, and gift of rare eloquence," and is "an important and growing man." Grant is young, but won fame by refusing a bribe from Sharp, and is "a well-educated and tolerably astute politician." He is "shrewd and far-seeing," remarkable "for personal honesty and trustworthiness," "entirely fearless, and his party loyalty is beyond question." Gilroy is "a genial, pleasant, obliging man" and "remarkably gifted with business ability." These short extracts give but a very feeble idea of the brilliancy and integrity of the group into whose hands the government of the city had passed. It was all the more gratifying because at that period we were expecting a Columbus Fair in this city, in the management of which these gifted men were to figure largely, and Grant often sat in state at the city hall surrounded by an admiring council of city notables who were preparing for the occasion.

At this point the *Evening Post* took upon itself to make a stand against what it thought to be the prevailing madness, but it had to take it single-handed. It pointed out that Grant was not "well educated," but illiterate, that little or nothing was known about him, that his associations had all been low, that his administration of the sheriff's office had been disorderly and corrupt, and that it was extremely reckless to express any opinion about him till it was seen what his appointments would be. He made his appointments in due course. They were probably the worst lot the city had ever seen in public places, and were exactly of the old Tammany type. Gilroy, and "Barney" and "Jimmy" Martin were among them. Apropos of all this, the *Evening Post* pointed out, day after day, under reiterated charges of violence and exaggeration, that the idea that there could be a "new Tammany" was absurd on its face; that the nature of the organization was such that it could not change without ceasing to exist; it was necessarily supported and maintained in its lower strata by the criminal and semi-criminal portion of the population, and drew its revenues mainly from levies on vice. It said: "The society is simply an organization of clever adventurers, most of them in some degree criminal, for the control of the ignorant and vicious vote of the city in an attack on the property of the taxpayers. There is not a particle of politics in the concern any more than in any combination of Western brigands to 'hold up' a railroad train and get the express packages. Its sole object is plunder in any form which will not attract immediate notice from the police."

To justify these assertions, and if possible countervail the impression produced by the article in *Harper's Weekly*, that "the new Tammany" was composed of estimable youths struggling, under adverse circumstances, to give the city good government, the *Evening Post* collected evidence regarding the character and antecedents of the members of the executive committee, or governing body of the organization, with the following results, which were embodied in a pamphlet with extended biographical sketches of the whole gang:

Professional Politicians	28
Convicted Murderer	1
Tried for Murder and Acquitted	1
Indicted for Felonious Assault	1
Indicted for Bribery	1
Professional Gamblers	4
Former Gambling-House or "Dive" Keepers	5
Liquor-Dealers	4
Former Liquor-Dealers	5
Sons of Liquor-Dealers	2
Former Pugilists	3
Former "Toughs"	4
Members of the Tweed Gang	6
Office-Holders	17
Former Office-Holders	8
Former Car Conductors	3

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Former Plasterer	1
Former Navy-yard Caulker	1
Former Carpenter	1
Lawyer	1
Nominal Lawyers	2
Favored City Contractors	2

The appearance of this pamphlet touched the leaders on the raw. Their first plan of defence was to have the editor of the *Evening Post* arrested for criminal libel by each of the gifted men composing the committee, in the hope that the annoyance would lead to the suppression of the pamphlet; but, after four failures to get an indictment from the grand jury, this was abandoned, and they apparently came to the conclusion that there was nothing for it but to seem as wicked as they really were. Since then they have attempted no resistance, though the English language has been exhausted by several prints in describing the vileness of their lives. They pocket their money and swallow the abuse.

All this occurred during Grant's first term. It was meant to show the city the real character of the man and his backers, and to prevent, if possible, the great calamity of having all the city offices filled by Tammany men, which would be the sure consequence of giving him a second term. Every one knows what followed. Scott was nominated in opposition to Grant, and the Republicans made a pretence of endorsing him; but 30,000 of them who registered stayed away from the polls, and Grant easily defeated him, and Gilroy in 1892 was elected. And now mark the consequence. Before Gilroy had been two years in office, it had to be generally admitted that so solidly entrenched behind the offices had Tammany become that it would be useless to elect a reform mayor this year without legislation enabling him to dismiss nearly all the city officials.

Let us observe that the evidence taken during the last few weeks by the Lexow committee has established in the fullest manner every charge or insinuation the *Evening Post* ever made against the Tammany organization or its members. At many things, of course, it could only hint. If, for instance, it had said that the police force of the city, from top to bottom, derived a large revenue from the wages of prostitutes—the lowest form of degradation to which civilized man can descend—only few persons would have heeded it, and yet this appears to be the simple truth. The organization is, and has been for twenty-five years, based on vice and crime, and lives by revenues furnished from this source. To suppose, therefore, that two or three men at the top could give it high aims without changing its subordinate agents or its inducements to join, is almost like supposing that something can be made out of nothing, or grapes be made to grow on thorns. Yet this great delusion has prevailed among us for nearly six years. Will the next generation fall a victim to it again?

THE PULLMAN BOYCOTT.

THE present boycott of the Pullman Car Company had its beginning in a reduction of wages which was forced upon the company last year by the panic. The company promised to restore the old rates as soon as business conditions would permit. Car-building is subject to competition, like other trades. Railroad companies buy cars where they can get them cheapest. Under the influence, or rather the inexorable law, of competition, the prices of cars have fallen in the last two years 24 per cent., and work is very slack at the reduction. Every car-builder, large or small, is anxious to keep his men together, both as a matter of humanity and as a means of taking advantage of the revival of business when it comes. It is for the interest of employer and employee alike to "grin and bear it" for a while, especially seeing that wages do not grow on trees and cannot be had except upon the condition of meeting the market. These conditions are sometimes hard. In fact, they are so hard in some countries that large numbers of people perish for want of sufficient nourishment every year. Anybody who fights against them, or who assumes that they do not exist, or who spends his time cursing the "iron law of wages," will go supperless to bed and will get no other reward for his pains. He may deprive some other people of their wages at the same time that he is losing his own, and that is what we are witnessing now on a pretty large scale.

On the 7th of May last the workmen of the Pullman car works made a formal request for a restoration of the wages they were receiving before the reduction of last year. Mr. Pullman met them two or three days later and gave the reasons why the conditions of business would not allow the restoration of the old rates. He said that the business depression and the reduction of orders for cars had compelled the company to reduce their force from 5,816 men in the beginning of 1893 to 2,000 on the 1st of November; that by hard struggling and by underbidding for work he had been able to keep the latter number employed and to increase the number gradually until he had 4,200 employed. How he had done this he explained in detail. He took an order for 55 passenger-cars for the Long Island Railroad at $300 per car less than the actual cost to the Pullman Company. He took an order for 300 cattle-cars and 250 refrigerator-cars for the Northwestern Railroad at $12 per car less than cost, and 25 cars for the Lake Shore Road at $79 each less than cost. "I mention these particulars," he said, "so that you may understand what the company has done for the mutual interest and to secure for the people at Pullman and vicinity the benefit of the disbursement of the large sums of money involved in these and similar contracts, which can be kept up only by the procurement of new orders for cars; for, as you know, about three-fourths of the men must depend upon contract work for employment." He added that there was less than sixty days' contract work in sight under all orders, and no possibility of getting any more work at prices measured by the wages of May, 1893. In order to provide work and wages for the town of Pullman, where the company's largest interests lay, he had closed the Detroit works altogether. Furthermore, the company had expended $160,000 in internal improvements which, under normal conditions, would have been postponed or spread over a number of years.

On the day following this exposition of the company's affairs the local committee of the employees ordered a strike, which was at once carried into effect. Mr. Pullman was very much relieved by the removal from his shoulders of the responsibility for the bread and butter of those 4,200 men and their families. The Pullman Savings Bank had on deposit $488,000, nearly all of which belonged to the workingmen. The deposits immediately began to run down, having been reduced by the sum of $32,000 since the strike began—a much smaller reduction than might have been expected, seeing that the pay-rolls before the strike amounted to $7,000 per day. Probably some of the men got work elsewhere.

What followed is well known. The American Railway Union made a demand that the Pullman Company should submit to arbitration the question whether it could afford to raise wages at a time when it was building cars at less than cost merely in order to give the men employment at some rate of pay. An arbitration accepted voluntarily presupposes an agreement to abide by the decision of the arbitrators, but a decision in favor of the employees would not put the company in funds. It would not furnish new orders for cars at higher prices than before. As a decision adverse to the company could not be complied with in any event, an arbitration would have been not merely useless but a downright mockery, and, if adverse, would have left the company in a still worse position—a position implying bad faith. Probably the Railway Unionists had this fact in view when they insisted so strongly on arbitration, and when they refused the company's offer to submit its books to examination by a committee of the employees.

The present boycott is an attempt to starve out society. The whole population subsists by the movement of trains, and cannot exist more than a few days without such movement. When the pinch comes, it will be not merely the duty but the dire necessity of everybody—lawyers, doctors, merchants, and all who depend upon their labor for their

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bread—to offer their services to the railroads as guards, or switchmen, or trainmen or what not. In passing judgment upon the enormity of the offence which the American Railway Union is committing, it must be remembered that not only is the strike which it has ordered entirely a "sympathetic" one, but that no warning was given to the different railroad companies which would have enabled them to meet the situation.

THE REAL PROBLEM OF THE UNEMPLOYED.

IT is pleasant to note that the general nervousness and vague fear of last winter in reference to the unemployed have now so largely given way to a season of reflection and analysis. It is no longer enough for a set of men to exhibit themselves as an Army of the Unemployed to inspire sympathy or terror in the staid citizen and to make him feel that Congress or the State or city government should "do something." The time has come to cross-examine the unemployed, to ask them how they came into their present evil estate, what work they ever did and how they came to lose their jobs, and what work they could or would do now if it were offered them. Such questioning is the surest way to rid ourselves of the notion that there is anything new or particularly threatening about the matter as it presents itself today, but that it is simply the old question over again of what society is to do with the incapable and unwilling who cannot, or will not, earn an honest living.

We recently had occasion to refer to several interesting reports from American municipalities and charity organizations, which help to a cool understanding of who the chronic unemployed are and how they came to be so, and now we find strong corroboration of American experience in an article published in the June *Charities Review* on "The English Municipalities and the Unemployed." The writer, Mr. Edward Porritt, gives a running account of the reports which seventy-three municipalities made to the Local Government Board in regard to providing work for the unemployed within their bounds. The experiment is no novelty in England. Ever since the labor agitators "threw a scare" into the politicians of both parties in 1885, the demands and threats of the unemployed have been steadily intensifying, and the Local Government Board has issued a circular ever since 1886, urging vestries to give work to idle men. This work was to be of a kind which would not "involve the stigma of pauperism," which "all can perform," which "does not compete with that of other laborers," and "which is not likely to interfere with the resumption of regular employment in their own trades by those who seek it."

The results reported by the seventy-three municipal authorities cannot be claimed by the most enthusiastic advocate of state labor as furnishing any water for his mill. In a great majority of the cases the work was unsatisfactorily done and at an increased cost. The Hanover Square vestry for some weeks kept forty men at work repairing roads. The surveyor in charge reports that "the result has been simply to benefit the men employed at an increased expenditure of £2,000 over the annual estimates for labor and material." The Hampstead vestry hired snow-sweepers, and they were reported to be "idle, incapable of hard work, and not amenable to discipline." Carpentering work was offered by the Hackney Board of Works, but the "carpenters struck the first day for trades-union rate of wages." Some of the suffering unemployed were offered work at Finchley at fivepence an hour, but declined it on the ground that "their ordinary wage was sixpence." Mr. Porritt sums up by showing how the class of men described in the Government Board circular, "who honestly dread the pauper stigma," do not come within the scope of any of these schemes to provide work by municipalities. One report states that the men belonged to "the class of permanently unemployed"; which, says Mr. Porritt, "is the official and English way of stating that they were corner men, loafers." It is also clear from the English experiments that the popular use of the term "unskilled labor" is very inaccurate.

> "According to the reports of the municipal engineers, sewering, road-making, the grading of parks and gardens, and even stone-breaking, grave-digging, and street-sweeping, cannot any longer be classed as unskilled work. Strength and endurance are needed for all this class of work, and also some degree of skill. Yet in the past it has all been carelessly grouped under the one comprehensive term of unskilled labor, and popularly regarded as work upon which any man may be put if nothing better or more suitable is offering for him."

All these investigations show how idle it is to imagine that any amount of work offered by Government or individuals would solve the problem of the permanently unemployed. Mr. Charles Booth, who knows more about the London unemployed than any man living, has justly said: "Lack of work is not really the disease; and the mere provision of it is, therefore, useless as a cure." In a recent address the Rev. Canon Barnett, warden of Toynbee Hall, that home of Christian socialism, made the following absolutely correct statement: "The unemployed, calmly considered, is not an army of willing workers; but is rather a body largely made up of those half employed, those unfit for employment, and those unwilling to be employed." It is clear that the real problem, therefore, is not to provide work, but to make men competent and willing to work. But that is a problem as old as civilization, as old as life itself. Nature's remedy is well known. Work or starve is the sharp dilemma she offers. Society's solution has hitherto been, Support yourself or go to the workhouse, or, if you are diseased or crippled, go to an asylum. The new system of coddling is no improvement. It makes men both more incompetent and more unwilling to work. If the State is to interfere at all with the operation of natural law in this matter, it should be in the aim to raise incompetence into fitness, to brand unwillingness as a crime. How to do that is the real problem of the unemployed.

CAUSSES AND GORGES OF THE CÉVENNES.

MONTPELLIER, May 16, 1894.

EVERY reader of Stevenson knows intimately the region through which he took that memorable journey 'With a Donkey through the Cévennes'—the bleak uplands over which Modestine so unwillingly bore the traveller's sleeping bag, among Trappists and surly peasants and psalm-singing Camisards. Whatever part of this strange mountain country Stevenson chose to describe became the most interesting part; but man and nature evidently had helped to draw him further south, where the historical monuments are more numerous, and where are to be found three kinds of remarkable scenery, the plateaus of the Causses, the gorges, and the singular rock formations. Between the direct railway lines from Paris to Nîmes and Perpignan lies the saddle of the southern Cévennes, a region about fifty miles square, unpenetrated by a railway. Few travellers descend at the stations of Mende, Millau, or Anduze, whence the roads lead inland; but here at Montpellier I heard strange tales of roaring caves, unfathomable pits, narrow defiles, and rock cities, and three hours by rail took me to Pont d'Hérault, the southern gateway of the mysterious land.

The first day's journey was devoted to crossing the Aigoual, the highest mountain of the southern range, and a point of view over the *causses*. As far as Valleraugue, ran one of the astonishingly cheap and correspondingly dirty post-omnibuses which connect the principal towns. Thence a long ascent on foot gave opportunity for some generalizations on French highways. The road was a splendid hard *chaussée*, zigzagging up the desolate slope, the sections looking like the *disjecta membra* of a sea-serpent. It is a route little travelled and without great military importance; but French engineers do not know how to make a steep, irr gular, rough, or unsafe road. Substantial walls protect the outer edges, solid stone bridges cross the streams, distance is increased if necessary to secure an easy grade. Over the very summit of the Aigoual, a little more than five thousand feet high, runs the curious immemorial highway called the Draye; it is a broad track, marked by low walls, and indented by the travel of herds and carts for twenty-five centuries. Like the Rennstieg in Thuringia and the early highways in New Hampshire, it avoids bridges and détours by boldly following the comb of the mountain ridge from south to north. The country is a kind of historical exhibition of road systems: near this pre-historic unmade road are remnants of the steep and direct Roman highways, the rough mediæval mule-paths, the narrow and irregular wheel-tracks of the last century, and the

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park-like modern *chaussées*. The causses region, with the numerous wide gorges, compel such Alpine engineering skill that an American hangs his head to think how much easier and better these highways are than the best country roads at home.

From the broad open dome of the Aigoual, the only granitic interloper in the family of the Cévennes, the topography of the country is manifest. A nearly level area, about three thousand feet above the sea, and probably an ancient "base-level," is underlaid by horizontal and pervious strata of limestone. The comparatively new streams have cut down deep cañons, back to their sources; but the lateral streams are hardly developed: hence between the gorges of the Tarn and its affluents, the Tarnon, Jonte, and Dourbie, stand the causses, enormous mesas, sometimes twenty miles across, and everywhere breaking off into imposing cliffs. It is a country such as the plateau of the Colorado is described to be, yet habitable and easily reached.

To begin the day's walk was easier than to end it, for the big farm-house at Sext-les-Cabanes was already overflowing with a household of thirty people—inmates and invited guests—and I was compelled to cut short the pleasure of sitting at the great open fire and talking to the hospitable host; an undue fastidiousness took me past the hostelry on the neighboring hill, and I was at last obliged to surprise the proprietor of a roadside *auberge* by knocking for a lodging. Yet, though he could give me only a rough place in the loft, I had the experience, usual in the Cévennes, of finding a clean and comfortable bed, tolerable food, and kindly people. There appear to be no summer stations in this part of the Cévennes; but the village inns, in spite of their dirty public rooms, leave rather a pleasant memory.

The road to Sainte-Enimie passes from the *auberge* through an elaborate tunnel, down a wild Alpine ravine to the Tarnon, and thence along the gorges of that stream and of the Tarn. Although it skirts the perpendicular walls of Causse Méjean nearly all the way, the road is more interesting for the passers by and the villages than for the scenery. The host at the *auberge* had served in the war against the Prussians, and had views as to the wastefulness of a three-years' peace service. All the way along, pleasant country folk were passing—carters, farmers, even a young man wearing the cap of the "Armée du Salut." It is rather a commonplace people, with little that is unusual in dress or manners, but habituated to dialects beyond the understanding of a foreigner. At the mid-day station of Florac there were even the regular commercial travellers, audibly partaking of soup and chattering over the wholesale price of wine.

Yet Florac was a Catholic stronghold in the fierce war of the Camisards, which showed the people of the Cévennes to be a tough and unconquerable race. The causses seem remote, but they have had their part in many of the world's great events. Across them marched armies over the two Roman roads; among the causses in 1627 Rohan made his desperate and unsuccessful attempt to resist the King of France; in the causses flamed up the memorable rising of the Protestants in 1702, the most stubborn of the protests against the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. When one sees the country, one understands something of the tenacity of Roland and his guerilla force, and his successful resistance to a marshal of France. The whole countryside is a stronghold; the causses are fortresses, the cañons impassable passes. It was only by building twenty roads across the country and by destroying more than four hundred houses that the insurrection was subdued; and yet Protestantism lived through all that persecution. Perhaps the women who wore out their lives in the prison tower at Aigues-Mortes for the crime of attending Protestant conventicles, were strengthened in their stubbornness by the sight of the distant Aigoual, whence Cavalier had descended to scatter the King's armies. At any rate, after a hundred years during which no marriage was possible except for adherents of the Church, when Protestant worship had apparently disappeared, the flame relighted spontaneously, and ever since the Revolution a considerable part of the population of the Cévennes has been strongly Protestant.

All the way from Ispagnac, six miles below Florac, the gorge of the Tarn deepens and narrows; but it was reserved for the third day's journey, from Sainte-Enimie to Peyreleau, to reveal the peculiar beauty of the valley. From the guide-books, both Baedeker and Miriam, one gathers that the gorge is a dark and gloomy chasm, shut in between beetling black cliffs, spanned by a narrow strip of sky, and resounding with the roaring of cataracts. In reality, the river flows easily and unbrokenly (except for two dams and one rapid) through a cañon smiling with green, abounding in singing-birds, and breaking out in cliffs of superb color, crowned with fantastic and beautiful rock formations. The walls rise in successive giant steps, leaving a green edge along many parts of the stream, and thickly wooded shelves and slopes higher up. There is a footpath all the way, usually on the edge of the river, but several times rising to terraces five hundred feet above, so as to avoid the overhanging buttresses of the mountains. Quaint villages appear, Chely du Tarn, and Hauterive, and La Sablière, almost indistinguishable from the gray rocks upon which they are perched. Caves are hollowed in the upper cliffs or near the stream, and one of them is walled in for a human habitation. Abundant springs gush out at the foot of the cliffs, fed by secret channels from the causses above. Here and there appears a château such as the beautiful La Case, a castle straight out of Turner's pictures, set within a pocket of the cliffs, in the midst of luxuriant trees, overhung by a cavern, hemmed in by the river; its gray towers looking less artificial than the red rocks above.

Below La Malcue the path becomes more capricious, and where it plunges upward the weary traveller took a broad and easy way which he knew runs into an "impasse," at a lonely farm. The only visible inhabitant was a girl in a cherry-tree, who consented to be the mouthpiece of a request for a boatman; and her clear, musical voice rings out across the gorge to an invisible person more than half a mile away. Voices reverberate, and in due time two men appear—for the shallow and rapid river is navigable, and more luxurious travellers descend in boats all the way from Sainte-Enimie. Presently one of these boats poked its shovel nose over the edge of the bank; it is shaped like an elongated flat-iron, with perfectly flat bottom, set with rows of big wrought-iron nails, and straight sides. An ordinary chair receives the passenger, while the boat, which draws about three inches, is guided or propelled by short stakes in the hands of two gondoliers. No motion could be smoother or more luxurious, no shallows more limpid, no deep pools more clear. The trout, plainly visible as they make their swift way up stream, were not more at home than we. Thus we slipped along through the magnificent defile of the Détroit. There are many deeper gorges—the edges of the causses are only about eighteen hundred feet above; there are many wilder ravines—the river is only at two places actually hemmed in on both sides by high cliffs. But one seldom sees such lavishness of form and color. The cliffs, grey, blue, brown, purple, golden, and black, are partly clothed with feathery trees; everywhere, up to the very top, are the carvings left by running water; caves of several stories; flat arches eight hundred feet high against the face of the rock; shelves with overhanging rocks a mile long; natural arches; rows of yellow pinnacles two hundred feet high, planted at intervals up a long slope, and a fretwork of fantastic rocks all along the top of the regular cliff. At the narrowest point the cliffs so overhang the stream as to look like an enormous broken vault, within which all the Baths of Caracalla might be set. The current too rapidly carries the traveller through these wonders to the point where the stream disappears into the tumbled mass of rocks caused by a mountain fall, the Pas de Souci. It is the precise spot where Sainte-Enimie, in a somewhat undignified pursuit of her and her convent's arch enemy, called on the mountain to stop him, and the big rock called the Sourde obligingly pinned him down, and still bears the mark of his burning claw. Below this point the gorge renews its stately beauty, but the mind is satiated with grandeur, and the body gratefully accepts the kitchen fire and the fried trout of the comfortable inn at Peyreleau.

The town is one of the most picturesque in the region. Like nearly all of them, it is grouped about and beneath a castle; but the old town walls and towers have been removed in all these villages, and, except at Nant, there is no remarkable church. Millau still possesses a mediæval town-hall, cathedral, and a timber house which may have been built when Millau was a frontier stronghold for the English. Above Peyreleau lies the gorge of the Jonte, similar in character to that of the Tarn, and penetrated by a road lying high up under the wall of Causse Méjean. Above Meyrucis—a Protestant centre in the war of the Camisards—the road winds up through one of the few old forests of the Cévennes to the plateau of the Causse Noire. A kindly farmer gave the pedestrian a lift, and told him that the peasants of the causses were contented and even well-to-do. It shows in them a cheerful character, for the outlook was cold and barren; low, flat hillocks of naked limestone made up a treeless and waterless waste; the immature valleys were dry, or led to sink-holes; the village of Lanuéjols was dirty and depressing. Yet from the well-made *chaussée* were visible good fields of grain, and there are abundant flocks. In fact, the peasants of the causses furnish a droll connection between two of the best-known French industries, the cheesemaking of the neighboring Roquefort, and the glovemaking of Millau; for the week-old lambs sacrifice their skins in order that their mothers' milk may go to the cheese factory.

The causses and the cañons make and supplement each other; it still remained to examine the curious rock-formations which in so many places mark the line where the plateaus break off. By common consent the most remarkable group of these formations is the labyrinth known as Montpellier le Vieux, almost ten miles from Millau. A climb of an hour from the road along the Dourbie brings one suddenly into this uncanny place. The

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first impression is one of personal injury. Is this the "rock city" which the guide-books promise, this group of white rocks, indistinguishable from below, unknown ten years ago, and only one of half-a-dozen neighboring groups scattered along the edge of the Causse Noire? Are these spaces, between the rocks, the corridors and streets and arcades of which people talk? It is only after wandering about, penetrating the mass, and climbing to the Douminal, the highest and most majestic pinnacle, that one begins to appreciate the extraordinary grandeur of nature's architecture. It stands above the level of the causse behind it, and looks almost straight down fifteen hundred feet into the gorge of the Dourbie. The base is a soft, regular green mound, upon the slopes of which rise a wilderness of detached and giant rocks, from twenty to three hundred feet high; on this absolutely waterless spur of a waterless causse, every rock bears the mark of the carrying power of a running stream. The resulting forms are not only fantastic and beautiful, they are on a scale and of a kind not commensurate with human language, because not comparable with any works of man. Gradually one sees a kind of plan in it all: about the central group lie four basins, the shallow heads of ravines; in each are arranged long parallel ridges, which are subdivided by cross alleys into detached blocks, many of them perforated by caves, and some opened into magnificent gateways. It is not a city, for what city has streets set on either side with buildings a hundred and fifty feet high? It is not a sanctuary, for even in Egypt there are no monoliths that cover an acre. It is not a fortress, for no artillery could batter such breaches through walls a hundred feet thick. Imagine all the tombs and ruins of the Campagna, all the broken piers and arches of the aqueducts crowded together into a space of five hundred acres, the lower part still hacked and cut away by the Barbarians, and you have some conception of the magnificence of Montpellier le Vieux. All this is set on a mountain top, in absolute loneliness, with views of similar majestic forms in every direction. To the geologist it must be a puzzle, and at the same time a remarkable instance of the power of water and wind to shape solid stone. To the layman it is the most fascinating of all the beauties of this remarkable region.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

Correspondence.

THE BUREAU OF ROLLS BULLETIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 1513 of the *Nation*, June 28, very fairly reviewing the Bulletin of the Bureau of Rolls and Library of the Department of State, you say, of the miscellaneous index, "in No. 3 it ranges from Adam to Zeisberger (the last entry being a repetition, by way of correction, of the same item entered in Bulletin No. 1 under 'Feisberger,' but, alas! a fresh error is perpetrated by misspelling 'Ziseberger')."

Will you kindly allow me space for a correction, and a word more? The spelling "Ziseberger" is correct; no fresh error has been made, although it is easy to see how the reviewer has been led to think so. The index, of course, bears the name found in the autograph signature of the letter indexed. In the two letters mentioned in Bulletin No. 3 the autograph signature is "D. Ziseberger."

In the Introductory Note to the Documentary History of the Constitution, to be found with the title-page for volume i., at the end of the Appendix, Bulletin No. 3, the following statement is made:

"The purpose in view being to avoid controversy and to meet the demand of historical scholars and students by presenting the contents of the papers themselves, as classed and filed in the Department, and as verified by the records, and nothing more, the editorial function is confined to the general form of the text, and to such notes as may be indispensable to clear display."

This purpose was not determined upon without very careful consideration of other views, and the attitude assumed would seem to be justified both by circumstance and example. As it is the purpose to add nothing, so it is the purpose to withhold nothing; at the same time only official and authentic records can be properly used in the Bulletin to amplify or explain the Archives.

ANDREW HUSSEY ALLEN.

WASHINGTON, D. C., June 29, 1894.

THE NILE CORVÉE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At last her Majesty's Government have acknowledged the deception practised upon the civilized world by the pretended abolition of forced labor in Egypt. In 1891 Lord Cromer said: "The corvée has been wholly abolished." In the same Parliamentary Report, Sir C. Scott-Moncrieff said: "In 1890, for the first time, perhaps, in all history, there was no corvée in Egypt." Lord Cromer now states that these assertions were absolutely and unqualifiedly false. He concedes that the Powers placed at the disposal of the Public Works Department £400,000 ($2,000,000) annually because "the laborer is worthy of his hire." He knew that the assertion, made with every guarantee of truth, that this money had been applied to the extinction of forced, unfed, and unpaid labor, to the suppression of a serfage in comparison with which any such corvée as that of the French peasant before the Revolution was the lightest of burdens—was universally believed to be true. In the last Parliamentary Report, Lord Cromer states that the corvée is used in guarding the Nile banks; that it is "a hardship" and "an evil"; that it amounted last year to a total of over six million days' work of forced, unfed, and unpaid labor; that peasants, arbitrarily selected—"in the usual manner"—were required to work, "on an average," for eighty-five days, in Lower Egypt.

He seeks to minimize the wrong by saying that "the work was done at a time when, the country being more or less flooded, the mass of the agricultural population cannot work on their fields." This is a mean subterfuge. Lord Cromer knows perfectly well that, during the three months of high-Nile, the peasants of the Delta are at work in their fields, and that no considerable part of Lower Egypt is ever flooded. Fifty-two thousand peasants were taken from their fields as well as their homes, even if a considerable part of the thirty thousand peasants of Upper Egypt would have been awaiting the falling waters to sow their inundation crop.

There is no longer any pretence that the laborers cannot be obtained. "The people willingly come out and work for payment." "It is possible to insure each man employed receiving his daily wage." Lord Cromer fixed the amount of winter corvée in 1884 at 5,100,000 days' work. Conceding that it was not diminished by changes in the irrigation system, as we were assured that it had been, these five million days' work were paid for out of two millions of dollars, practically of land-tax, granted by the Powers. But Lord Cromer now states that a day's work can be redeemed for fifteen cents; which would make a total for the winter corvée of $750,000. This would leave $1,250,000 to redeem the Nile corvée, which is estimated by the English inspectors-general of irrigation at only $900,000. Is it surprising that a demand is constantly made for the subjection of the accounts of the Public Works Ministry to an independent auditor, when such glaring discrepancies are disclosed by even such a relatively superficial inquiry as that which we are enabled to make from reports in whose most solemn asseverations, as we have seen, not the slightest confidence is to be placed?

To any suggestion that the debt of Egypt had been increased by 25 per cent.; that the cultivation of tobacco had been prohibited; that crime was rife; that five millions of Sudanese had perished by agonizing deaths in four years; that the troops amnestied at Tel el Kebir as a condition of surrender had been deported to Darfur, and not a man was left alive of more than twenty-five thousand of Arabi's soldiers; that the cruel tax invented and imposed under the title of *rachat militaire* was a monstrous abuse of delegated powers—to all and sundry of the administrative errors which could not be denied or concealed, England answered: "We have wholly abolished the corvée." And now it is admitted that this has never been done. An illusion has been dispelled.

COPE WHITEHOUSE.

LONDON, June 22, 1894.

"BACK AND FORTH."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: This phrase is generally characterized as an Americanism, and, inasmuch as its use is now confined to America, is correctly so characterized. To judge from the treatment of it by the *Standard Dictionary*, however, it is current English; an opinion which is supported by an unfortunate mistake resulting from the carelessness of one of Dr. Murray's multitudinous readers.

Dr. Murray gives only two quotations for it, one of them being from Mr. E. P. Roe, and the other running as follows:

"1839. *Anecd. & Trad.* (Camd). Young girls . . . dance over the candle *back and forth*."

To satisfy my curiosity, I have consulted the book thus referred to, and have there found:

"The young girls in and about Oxford have a sport called Leap Candle, for which they set a candle in the middle of the room, in a candlestick, and then draw up their coats in the form of breeches, and dance over the candle *back and forth*, with these words:

"'The Taylor of Bisiter he has but one eye;
He cannot cut a pair of green Galagaskins, if he were to try.'

"This sport, in other parts, is called dancing the Candle Rush." Bp. White Kennet (died 1728), in W. J. Thoms's *Anecdotes and Traditions* (1839), p. 96.

For *back and forth* I can produce but one other quotation from any English author:

"But the Marriners, having once gotten them aboard, did make their ships as so many prisons, or houses of torture, to wrest their wealth out of their hands, lengthning the time by circular and vnnecessarie turnings, *backe and forth*," etc.—Rev. Dr. Thomas Jackson, *Commentaries vpon the Apostles Creede*, vol. i., p. 196 (1613).

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That *back and forth* was ever better than a provincialism is unlikely. I have met with no notice of it in anything that has been written on the English dialects. Yet a neighbour of mine, a clergyman, informs me that, in Devonshire, of which he is a native, when a person goes on showing the palm and the back of his hand alternately, he is said to turn his hand *back and forth*.

Back and fore, "the hinder part foremost or before," is mentioned in Mr. F. T. Elworthy's *West Somerset Word-book*. *Back and to*, "to and from," is entered in Mr. Robert Holland's *Glossary of Words used in the County of Chester*. *Forth and back* is heard in Cornwall, on the authority of a writer in *Notes and Queries*, February 17, 1894. *Voar an' back* is used in Devonshire, according to Mr. R. Pearse Chope's *Dialect of Hartland*.

Did we get *back and forth* from England? Or was it altered, among us, from the *back and fore* which many immigrants must have brought over from Scotland, where it has been for many generations familiar? So far as at present appears, our colonial forefathers knew nothing of it; at any rate, neither Dr. Witherspoon nor the Rev. Jonathan Boucher records it as one of the eccentricities of speech which marked Americans between 1761 and 1775. Mr. Pickering, in 1816, calls it "a very common expression in New England," adding, "but it is used only in conversation." Of late years, as all are aware, it has invaded our literature frequently. Whether Mr. S. G. Goodrich, Dr. J. G. Holland, Mr. G. P. Marsh, Mr. Richard Grant White, Mr. J. R. Lowell, Mr. W. D. Howells, Mr. C. D. Warner, Prof. T. R. Lounsbury, and others have adopted it from ignorance, or, if not so, with design to lend their aid towards establishing a new dialect, is matter of speculation. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 21, 1894.

P. S. In No. 1456 it was pointed out that the adverbial *back of* is not peculiar to the United States, but has been long prevalent in Ireland. Now it turns out that it is known in at least one part of England, also, shortened from the dialectal *aback of*. See Mr. R. O. Heslop's *Northumberland Words*.

Subjoined is a quotation for a colloquial Hibernianism, hitherto unnoticed, *to the back of*, "immediately after," in which sense there was, of old, *on the neck of*, *in the neck of*:

"He made her drink a bumper, and another *to the back of it*." Anon., *History of Ned Evans* (1796), vol. i., p. 185.

To my letter in No. 1497, it may be added, that in Fielding's *Tom Jones*, *at all* occurs thirty-two times, and sixty-five times in Cardinal Newman's *Apologia*.

Notes.

MERRILL & BAKER, New York, have in preparation a number of new editions with illustrations in photogravure—George Eliot's 'Mill on the Floss,' in two volumes, McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times,' in four volumes, More's 'Utopia,' and Anacreon.

A biography of Bismarck by Hans Blum will be published during the present year in five volumes, at five marks each, by C. H. Beck in Munich. The part which has already appeared contains an interesting account of Bismarck's life as a student at Göttingen in 1832 and 1833, where his skill in fence won for him the surname "Achilles the invulnerable." In three terms he fought twenty duels and received only a single wound, of which the scar on his lower jaw near the lip is still perceptible; but as this was caused by his adversary's blade flying from the hilt, it was contrary to the code, or *Comment*, and declared to be a "Sauhieb" (foul blow), and therefore "invalid," so that his reputation for invulnerability remained technically unimpaired. Indeed, he became so notorious in this respect that the University authorities forbade him to fight certain projected duels, on pain of expulsion; and a month later he was sentenced to three-days' incarceration for a like offence. His first duel was with an Englishman, who had spoken in derision of "the German Michael with his night-cap over his ears and in a motley dressing-gown made up of thirty-six shreds and patches"—alluding to the many petty States of Germany. With an American student he made a bet that Germany would be politically united in twenty years. The wager was twenty-five bottles of champagne, to be drunk in the country of the winner. After the lapse of this score of years, in 1853, Bismarck was preparing to cross the sea in order to pay the bet, when he learned that the American had died, and adds: "The name he bore did not presage a long life—Coffin."

'Beyond the Rockies,' by C. A. Stoddard (Scribners), is the somewhat vague designation of a book which is better described in its subtitle, "A Spring Journey in California." It is a very superficial glimpse of southern and central California as seen by a Raymond tourist. Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona come in for brief mention by the way, and one chapter describes a visit to an Indian school. Santa Barbara, with its Spanish quarter and flower festivals, is well described, but the chapters on the Yosemite are chiefly a record of the misfortunes and fatigues which prevented the writer from seeing anything. No doubt the Southern Pacific Railway does manage things very badly, but when one writes a book on such a region, he ought to make himself independent of time-tables and excursion parties. We are surprised that so hasty a traveller should have a chapter on the seldom-visited Hetch-Hetchy Valley; but the description proves to be a copy of a friend's letter. The twenty-three full-page photogravures are the best things in the book.

'The Garden that I Love,' by Alfred Austin (Macmillan & Co.), is a sort of vent for the author's opinions on all topics—a book which might have been written in response to a certain child's naïve request when entertaining an older person, "Please tell me all you know." However interesting such books may be to the author's friends, they run some risk with the public. This one will not please a gardener more than a poet or a silversmith. It contains something about a garden, to be sure, and also something about a house and the furnishings thereof; something about a tea-urn, about Veronica, Lamia, and "the poet," with specimen poems thrown in; but not enough about any one thing to gratify any special taste.

Contrary to established precedent, from Æsop down, the animals in 'The Jungle Book,' by Rudyard Kipling (The Century Co.), have not learned to talk merely for the sake of delivering moral lectures. This will recommend the book to young people who are not in special search of improvement, as well as to their elders, who presumably never need it. Relieved of all fear of having a moral sprung upon them, they can give themselves up to undivided enjoyment of these genuinely interesting creatures, and feel a pleased surprise at the end to think they have learned so much about the "jungle folks" without having to read a single dull sentence. The chief personage is Mowgli, a boy who was carried off by a tiger and rescued and brought up by a genteel family of wolves. Their education of him was so judicious and successful that we should hardly be surprised to hear of a prosperous jungle boarding-school for boys under their direction, when these stories become well known.

'Children's Singing Games, with the tunes to which they are sung,' collected and edited by Alice B. Gnome (Macmillan), is the first book of a series of which a second is promised for next Christmas. It is tastefully printed, and so freely adorned with pictures that it will interest even such children as do not care much for the poems, prose, or melodies that make up the bulk of it.

'The Inflections and Syntax of the Morte d'Arthur of Sir Thomas Malory' (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is a monograph which does the author, Dr. C. S. Baldwin, much credit. Some of the remarks about forms are of no great moment, but the syntactic matter will all be welcome to specialists. Malory's position, chronologically and "litteraturgeschichtlich," makes so good a study of his syntax as Dr. Baldwin's an important contribution to a neglected department of English linguistic history. One may pick a flaw here and there, but only Momus would make much of such trifles in view of the general excellence of the book. The material is abundant and arranged with remarkable clearness and method. We hope Dr. Baldwin will continue his syntactic investigations.

The aftermath of the World's Fair at Chicago which has been a whole year in gathering is represented at this moment on our table by four solid volumes. One of these emanates from the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, and contains the proceedings of Section E of the World's Engineering Congress, July 31–August 5, 1893, on the subject of engineering education. Another and larger volume is the Proceedings of the International Congress of Education, July 25-28, 1893, edited very conscientiously and intelligently by N. A. Calkins (Washington: Z. Richards, 1301 Corcoran Street). It is a reference work of permanent value, and is well printed and indexed. There is no teacher in any grade of instruction who could not profit by this classified collection of papers from all quarters of the globe. Huger still in appearance, though containing fewer than the 1,000 pages of the volume just named, is 'The World's Congress of Representative Women, May 15-22, 1893,' edited by May Wright Sewall (Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.; New York: J. A. Hill & Co., 44 East Fourteenth Street). Here the striking feature is the large number of portraits, mostly of the women who participated in the congress. The text offers much food for reflection in ways intended and in others. The last volume on our list is also the most elegant: 'Memoirs of the International Congress of Anthropology, August 28-September 2, 1893,' edited by C. Staniland Wake (Chicago: Schulte Publishing Co.). The divisions of the contents are physical anthropology, archæology, ethnology, folk-lore, religions, and linguistics, besides a supplement consisting of two papers in German. The names of a portion of the writers—D. G. Brinton, Franz Boas, Otis T. Mason, Carl Lumholtz, Walter Hough, John C. Fillmore, Alice C. Fletcher, Frank H. Cushing, W. W. Newell, Horatio Hale, Washington Matthews, Cyrus Adler, Morris Jastrow, jr.—suffice to indicate the worth and readability of these memoirs.

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'Die Medicinische Wissenschaft in den Vereinigten-Staaten,' by Dr. S. Placzek (Leipzig: Thieme), is a little volume of "Reisestudien" made in connection with a visit to the Columbian World's Fair. The author does full justice to the evolution and application of medical science in the United States, and pays a warm and willing tribute of praise to whatever he finds worthy of commendation in arrangements for the prevention of disease or for the cure and care of the sick. He saw much to admire in our hospitals, especially in those founded by private beneficence or connected with universities, as, for example, at Johns Hopkins, but speaks in severe terms of the sanitary condition of our large cities, which seem to have made an unfavorable impression upon him, both architecturally and hygienically. As the regulations on paper are sufficiently strict, he does not understand why the streets of our chief metropolis should be in such a filthy state. Dr. Placzek has a chapter on "The American Physician" and the ethics of the profession. The work is profusely illustrated.

Among the several excellent articles which compose the volume 'Nouvelles Études de Littérature et d'Art,' by M. G. Larroumet (Paris: Hachette), the last, on Max Nordau's two-volume arraignment of literary men and artists, 'Entartung,' will certainly attract attention. As a matter of course, M. Larroumet, himself a writer, was not likely to accept without examination and discussion the startling statements made by the Hungarian doctor of medicine. The discussion is contained in this new volume and is vivacious, to say the least. Ibsen also has an article devoted to his genius and his plays, the performance of which in France marks, in M. Larroumet's opinion—and he is a competent authority—a step in the history of French dramatic art. The other articles are, with two exceptions, on French writers and artists.

The sixth volume of 'La Bataille Littéraire,' by Philippe Gille (Paris: Victor-Havard), treats of books which appeared in 1891 and 1892, and will be useful as an occasional reference, but it is not equal to Ginisty's publication, and is, besides, not sufficiently up to date.

Prof. Giuseppe Rossi of Pisa has just added another to his valuable series of monographs on the philosophers of the Renaissance. It is a brief but interesting study of Nicholas of Cusa, in whom the author professes to find a critical monism not unfairly suggestive of Kant and Hegel. Prof. Rossi feels that the Renaissance—the cradle of modernity—has been ignorantly slurred over by historians of philosophy. He believes, moreover, that in the custom of thinkers of that time simultaneously to profess physics with metaphysics, concrete experiment with abstract speculation, lies the one possibility of a sound method. If in his zeal the Italian scholar occasionally confuses his own lights for the lights of his author in hand, he is, nevertheless, we believe, in his main contention right, and we commend his arguments to the notice of students supersaturated with German systems or English want of system.

Mr. George S. Boutwell writes of "Kossuth in New England" in the *New England Magazine* for July. Mr. Boutwell was Governor of Massachusetts at the time, and is one of the group of the reception committee portrayed on page 531, of whom four out of the five attained great prominence in national affairs—Wilson, Banks, and Burlingame, besides the future Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Boutwell is singularly ill-informed about Kossuth's relations to the abolitionists, and fails altogether to notice Kossuth's bid for the support of a slaveholding republic by refusing to give any countenance to the anti-slavery movement. A brief paper, in the same magazine, on "The First Abolition Journals," by Samuel C. Williams, is a valuable contribution to the history of the precursors of the *Liberator*.

La Réforme Sociale for June 1 opens with the address of M. Georges Picot of the Institute before the Société d'Économie Sociale, in which he defends the organized efforts to better the condition of the poor from the attacks of the socialists. Other articles are one upon the manner in which the artisans of Berlin are lodged, and one upon the work of the Société Foncière of Canada in founding French villages on the line of the Canadian Pacific Railway in Manitoba. The most important paper, however, is M. Maurice Barrat's account of the French possessions on the Congo. The inhabitants he divides into two classes, the aborigines and the invaders. The former have nearly disappeared, though singularly their language has survived and has become the commercial language of the colony—the only medium of intercourse between the Europeans and the negroes. Of the material resources of the country, whether mineral or agricultural, he speaks with unusual soberness and caution, calling attention to the fact that though there are abundant evidences of the presence of copper, silver, and iron ores "of great richness," and much of the land is well adapted to the cultivation of coffee and cacao, yet the lack of means of transport to the coast will for a long time prevent the working of the mines or cultivating the land to advantage. It is not the place for the colonist to make a home for his family; only companies with large concessions of territory can accomplish anything. The impression left is that the chief energies of the French authorities hitherto have been directed rather to the extension of their possessions in the interior than to the development of the regions near the coast.

A not much more encouraging account of French colonial enterprise is to be found in the anonymous article on Timbuctoo and the future of the Sudan, in the *Vie Contemporaine*. The principal military events leading to the occupation of this city are briefly sketched, together with the measures taken to bring the western Sudan under the French influence and to unite it with Senegambia on the west and Algeria on the north. The writer frankly acknowledges the worthlessness of much of the territory acquired, especially as compared with the English sphere of influence, but hopes that, with the construction of a trans-Saharan railway, either to the Niger or Lake Tchad, the whole commerce of the Sahara will be turned into French channels.

The persons, chiefly politicians and missionaries, who write with such confidence as to the duty of the European governments immediately to construct railways from the coast to the interior of Central Africa, should ponder a statement just submitted by the Belgian Government to the Chamber regarding the Congo Railway. The work of building a railroad to connect the head of navigation on the river with Stanley Pool was begun in 1890, and at the end of three years "of almost superhuman effort" only the first section of 40 kilometres, about twenty-five miles, has been completed. "The main obstacles to progress have been the climate, the soil, the conformation of the country, and the impossibility of finding capable workmen." It is probably not too much to say that these obstacles would prevail to an even greater extent on the east coast, where the British and Germans are urged to build roads to the great lakes, as well as in the French road across the Sahara, stretching for 1,600 miles through an almost foodless and waterless desert. In each of these cases the difficulty of provisioning the working parties must undoubtedly prove far greater than the providing for the Belgians on the Congo.

A remarkable journey has just been completed by a Frenchman, M. Lionel Decle, who was intrusted by his Government with a scientific mission to study the anthropology and ethnology of the various native races of south and east Africa. Leaving Cape Town in May, 1891, he made his way north through Matabele and Mashonaland to the Zambesi. Thence the transit by way of the great lakes to Uganda proved to be no very difficult task. At Uganda he joined Major Owen's detachment of the British expedition against the King of Unyoro, and accompanied this officer to Wadelai on the Nile, being the first traveller to reach this river from the Cape of Good Hope. Returning to Uganda, he passed through the Masaï country, arriving at the coast in May, just three years from his time of starting.

"*Caligula*" is the title of the leading article in *Die Zukunft* for June 2, a weekly journal edited by Maximilian Harden and published by Häring in Berlin. No sooner had Dr. Quidde's pamphlet on the crazy son of Germanicus begun to excite attention than Herr Harden wrote a letter to the author urging him to become a regular contributor to *Die Zukunft*, and expressing his regret that the essay had not been printed originally in this paper. Dr. Quidde declined the invitation, on the ground that he was already overburdened with literary work, and added that his political views differed so radically from those of Herr Harden as to render such a journalistic collaboration undesirable. Thereupon Herr Harden reviewed Dr. Quidde's pamphlet in the above-mentioned article, denouncing it as "a gross and utterly worthless caricature" and "a malicious and insidious lese-majesty," and expressing a very unfavorable opinion of a scholar who could put forth such a libel (*Schmähschrift*) and call it an historical study. One thing, however, disturbs him, namely, the eagerness of the German public to buy the pamphlet, of which twenty-one editions have been sold.

We have received from the publisher, H. Laurens, 6 rue de Tournon, Paris, Nos. 10–12 of *Le Modèle*, a fortnightly portfolio of plates labelled "artistic documents and ideas easy to apply or to work up, and intended for artists, amateurs, and industrials." Prof. G. Fraipont presides over the selection, which embraces animal and human figure studies, landscape, and various conventional essays in decoration. There is no proper text, but the cover is used for instructions how "to apply or to work up" the designs of the number, as well as for answers to correspondents.

From Dyrsen & Pfeiffer we have the first five *livraisons* of Maspero's new 'Histoire Ancienne des Peuples d'Orient,' volume one embracing Egypt and Chaldæa. There will be 150 parts like these, or three volumes for the entire work. The typography is worthy of the house of Hachette. The illustrations are very numerous, and exemplify the every-day life of the people or give the characteristic scenery of the East. This history needs no praise from us, but we cannot well examine it until it is further advanced.

In a Note in No. 1507 we described the new

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map of France issued in convenient sheets by the Department of the Interior, and stated that the price per sheet folded into a lettered cloth case was one franc. We followed last year's circular, but the price appears to have been raised to one franc five centimes, as we perceive from a sheet dated May, 1894. This means but a cent additional in our money.

—The site of Chicago originally was intersected by a sluggish river flowing into Lake Michigan. In 1848 the Illinois and Michigan Canal was completed, connecting the south branch of Chicago River with the Illinois River. The canal was, in part, supplied with water for its locks by pumping from the South Branch. As Chicago River became more and more foul the pumping facilities were enlarged, and sufficient current from the lake was established to mitigate, and at times to remove, the nuisance; but, during freshets, so strong an outward current was established as to carry sewage to the intake of the water works. During all this time, Chicago had been dreaming of a ship-channel to the Mississippi. Finally, this commercial ambition became so effectively reinforced by the crying sanitary evils that a majestic project, no less than for a huge channel leading from the lake, without pumping, through Chicago, to the Illinois River was adopted, and is now in active construction. This "drainage channel and waterway"—of course, the largest in the world—is to cost some $22,000,000 for about 37 miles. In its engineering aspect the work is of the greatest interest. The highest land to be crossed is about 23 feet above the level of Lake Michigan. The summit rock, over which, before its upheaval, the waters of the lake once flowed 20 feet deep, on their way to the Mississippi Valley, is now only 30 feet above the bed of Niagara River near Buffalo. Across this divide the canal is to be cut with a depth of channel of 18 feet, a bottom width of 160 feet, and a velocity of flow not to exceed three miles per hour. This ultimately constant flow of pure water from Lake Michigan of 600,000 cubic feet per minute will suffice to remove all sewage, to maintain Chicago River in a state of purity, and for ever to obviate the contamination of the city's water supply, which recently caused such a fatal and widespread epidemic of typhoid fever. The history, description, and illustrated details of the work are fully set forth in G. P. Brown's 'Drainage Chanuel and Waterway' (Chicago: R. R. Donnelley & Sons)—an excellent book, with the most inadequate index that it has been our fate ever to find in any work on a technical subject.

—Apropos of the recent discussion in our columns as to whether or not the Dred Scott case was "the first in which an act of Congress was *decided* by the Supreme Court to be unconstitutional for reasons not relating to its own judicial department," the second part of Prof. James B. Thayer's 'Cases on Constitutional Law,' which has just appeared (Cambridge: Charles W. Sever), contains on pages 480–496 a painstaking compilation of historical and judicial note and comment regarding the case. It supports the view that the only *decision* of the court in the case was that of Justice Nelson, as concisely summarized in the critical review of the case published in 1857 by Messrs. (afterwards Justices) Horace Gray and John Lowell: "A slave taken by his master into a State or Territory where slavery is prohibited by law, and afterwards returning with his master into a slave State and acquiring a residence there, if deemed by the highest court of that State, after his return, to be a slave, must be deemed a slave by the courts of the United States, and, therefore, not entitled to sue in those courts as a citizen of that State." Seven of the nine judges concurred in this conclusion, which was originally intended to be the *opinion* (as it was the *decision*) of the court, until Justice Wayne conceived the idea that the slavery question could be settled by a judicial essay on the whole question, and the case was accordingly remitted to the court for the several justices to write their individual opinions upon. In Judge Nelson's own words, concurred in by all the majority judges, "Our opinion is, that the question is one which belongs to each State to decide for itself, either by its Legislature or courts of justice; and hence, in respect to the case before us, to the State of Missouri, a question exclusively of Missouri law, and which, when determined by that State, it is the duty of the Federal courts to follow. In other words, except in cases where the power is restrained by the Constitution of the United States, the law of the State is supreme over the subject of slavery within its jurisdiction." "The question involved is one depending solely upon the law of Missouri; and . . . the Federal Court sitting in that State . . . was bound to follow it." The case, by a consensus of all the majority judges, being thus disposed of, Judge Taney's famous opinion is shown to be *obiter* and extra-judicial. Judge Curtis seems to have recognized this in the opening words of his dissenting opinion: "I dissent from the opinion pronounced by the chief justice, and from the judgment which the majority of the court think it proper to render," etc. And Prof. Thayer quotes voluminously instances where the opinion of the justice was not the judgment of the court. He makes a strong case for his contention, which seems to have been adopted by Bryce ('American Constitution,' i., pp. 256-7, 1st ed.); but, whatever the *judgment* of the court, it was the chief justice's "*dicta* on various other points touching the legal status of negroes and the constitutional views of slavery," and the intent of the majority to declare the Missouri Compromise unconstitutional, that gave the case its importance in history, and will for all time, rightly or wrongly, cause it to be referred to as "The Dred Scott *decision*."

—At the May meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society of London, that eminent scientist Dr. David Gill, her Majesty's astronomer at the Cape of Good Hope, presented his final results of determination of the sun's distance by measurements on the small planets Victoria and Sappho, and concluded his paper with significant suggestions which are already under consideration by the council of the society. First, he inquires whether, in the opinion of astronomers generally, steps should be taken for a more complete and harmonious organization and partition of the astronomical work of the world from the year 1900; and, second, whether astronomers are ready to enter upon a preliminary study, discussion, and experiment on the practical methods by which the art of observation may be raised to a higher level of accuracy, and its results be derived and published in a more systematic and homogeneous system. If these questions are answered in the affirmative, he further suggests an International Astronomical Congress, say two years hence, to discuss and make the necessary preliminary arrangements, the definitive programme and partition of the work to be undertaken at another general congress in the year 1899. Dr. Gill will be recalled as the originator of the Astro-photographic Congress, first established at Paris about seven years ago, the important work of which is now in progress in a score of observatories in different parts of the world, with the object of mapping the entire heavens photographically near the conclusion of the present century. Surely there is urgent need of convening the congress now proposed by Dr. Gill, and very material advancement of scientific interests would follow.

—Between Mr. W. E. Hall's 'Foreign Powers and Jurisdiction of the British Crown,' which has just issued from the Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan), and Mr. Piggott's 'Exterritoriality' of two years ago, the British lawyer and the British consular and diplomatic agents are now fairly equipped with specialized treatises in that rather indefinite field. In the part relating to Eastern States ("Oriental" would be a much better term) Mr. Hall's book in its subject would seem to overlap Mr. Piggott's; but somehow we appear to have two thoroughly different books. In looking for light on one or two of the topics made important by current events, we notice that Mr. Hall well says (p. 191), of the powers of consular courts, that they "spring remotely from a delegation made by a sovereign of the territorial state"; yet one would not suspect that this involves the fundamental and much-disputed question of the theory of exterritoriality, and for a full vindication one must seek Mr. Piggott's book. On p. 193 we read that "the territorial sovereign, if he chooses to bring an action in it [the consular court], submits himself, by doing so, as absolutely to the jurisdiction as any other litigant." But in a very important respect this sentence may or may not be law, according to the decision to be given before long by the Privy Council in the *Chishima-Ravenna* case, which is likely, through the imperial rank of one party and the profundity of the principles involved, to be one of the noted cases of modern times. The chapter on "Protectorates, Spheres of Influence, and Barbarous Countries" is timely, and says what can be said of a subject as yet undeveloped and sadly in need of common-sense and systematic regulation. The instinct of the Anglo-Saxon race to hold back from settling a legal incongruity until it becomes unendurable, and its readiness at any time to sacrifice plain justice to respect for nightmare technicalities, are seen to great advantage in these questions of jurisdiction and conflict of authorities; and this chapter will cause the unsophisticated reader to wonder whether, after all, the refinements of "civilized" justice do the world any better service than the legal crudities of "barbarous" countries.

—M. Jules Lemaitre, in one of his recent "Figurines"—a title he gives to a series of very pleasant little impressions which he is contributing to the *Temps*—says that the fame of Virgil in France rests in great part upon three fine sentences which are in everybody's mouth, and which constantly renew his memory. The first of these is the sibylline verse:

Magnus ab integro sæclorum nascitur ordo.

This, he says, is almost always mangled in quoting, and appears as "Novus rerum nascitur ordo." The second is what he calls the "inevitable" "Sunt lacrimæ rerum," which, ever since the time of the early Romanticists, has been intrepidly mistranslated. "Les choses elles-mêmes ont des larmes" is what they take it to mean, and some are fain to as-

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sert that they find the whole sum and substance of modern poetry in the phrase. The last quotation of the three is cited in French only: "On se lasse de tout, excepté de comprendre." This is certainly a fine saying, worthy of Sainte-Beuve or of Renan. It possibly belongs to Virgil, for Virgil is often enough surprisingly modern in his thought. Silenus, in the Eclogue, is a good enough evolutionist, and the pantheism of Father Anchises in the sixth 'Æneid' is above reproach. But we cannot be sure that the saying is Virgil's, since it does not appear in any work known to be his, though it is attributed to him by the commentator Servius. It appears, then, that Virgil's popular glory in France rests upon two misunderstandings of his words and one uncertain tradition. It may, however, be said of the misquotation, "Novus rerum nascitur ordo," that it is not quite made up out of the whole cloth. The line in the fourth Eclogue, which M. Jules Lemaitre quotes, may easily have been confused with a line in the seventh 'Æneid,' "Maior rerum nascitur ordo," which fits the French quotation somewhat more closely, and which may not have been in M. Lemaitre's mind as he wrote.

—There is grist for many mills in Strabo's geography, but his colossal work is rather for reference than for reading. It must be confessed, however, that Mr. Tozer's 'Selections from Strabo' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan) are really readable as well as a serviceable introduction to the merits of the most scientific and important of ancient geographers. Strabo's accurate powers of observation and description, his fund of legend and folk-lore and historical tradition, are well exemplified in these excerpts made by an editor who has travelled widely with Strabo in his hands. Not only the student but the traveller who retains some tincture of Greek may dip into this volume and find a true spirit of scientific research—descriptions as accurate and authentic as Baedeker's mingled with anecdote and legend and an occasional spice of Marco Polo. The selections, chosen from each of the seventeen books, offer characteristic tours, as it were, in Europe and Asia. In Gaul, for instance, the pious Stoic points out the advantageous arrangement of the river system, which he considers an evident mark of "Providential design and harmony"; he has a word to say of the Gallic character, its proneness to gasconade, its aptness for civilization, although just emerging from the period of bards and Druids and human sacrifice, when "a good crop of criminals laid in the ground was popularly thought to bring a good crop of grain"; finally, he can tell of Marseilles that it had already become a resort for distinguished Romans, and the rival of Athens in learning and culture. In other passages, we may turn from a careful description of the craters of Vesuvius and Etna to the mention of the Camaræ of the Black Sea, or of the snowshoes, glissades, and tobogganing on the Caucasus. In the midst of an enumeration of the natural and artificial conveniences of the site of Rome, we light upon a remark so acute and characteristic as the following: "Whereas the Greeks in their settlements looked to the natural beauty and strength of sites and harbors, the Romans gave heed to what the Greeks neglected—that is, to the building of roads and drains and aqueducts." This exemplifies the scope, variety, and interest of Mr. Tozer's selections from a treatise teeming with important facts. The details of some of these are constantly shifting under the light of fresh discovery and explorations. For example, "the fourteen vertical shafts between the Copais lake and the sea" (note, p. 237) are now reported by M. Kambanis as sixteen. But in general Mr. Tozer has been able to avoid treading on "the hot ashes" of recent controversy. The preface, the foot-notes, and the maps provide much helpful matter for the elucidation of Strabo's life, his style, and the points of topography and geography involved in the extracts.

WHARTON'S REVOLUTIONARY DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE.

The Revolutionary Diplomatic Correspondence of the United States. Edited under direction of Congress by Francis Wharton, with preliminary index, and notes historical and legal. Published in conformity with Act of Congress of August 13, 1888. (Six volumes.) Washington: Government Printing Office. 1889.

ALTHOUGH the title-page of these volumes bears date 1889, the work was not really issued from the Government Printing-Office until within the last six months, nearly five years after the death of the distinguished editor. This fact ought to acquit him of responsibility for such errors of the press as appear in the work, since it is improbable that he supervised the proof-reading. A few of these errors may be noticed at haphazard. In the last paragraph of the preface the date 1816 is given with reference to Sparks's publication of the Revolutionary correspondence, instead of 1829, the date of the first Boston edition; on page 443 of vol. i. a sentence reads without sense because of the omission of the word "owing"; further on we find "Russeau" for "Rousseau"; and on page 511 the text says that of the zeal of John Adams there could "be question," which is doubtless meant to read "no question." Errors of this kind are numerous, and are the more to be regretted as they are found in a publication of rare historical value.

The first volume opens with a discriminative and appropriate sketch of Dr. Wharton's life by Prof. John B. Moore, and this is followed by Dr. Wharton's last essay, 'Patches on the Constitution,' from the *Independent* of January 10, 1889, an insertion which was never contemplated by the editor, and which might easily have been omitted without lessening the value of a work with which it has no real connection. The rest of this volume, if not the most valuable, is certainly the most interesting of the whole work, for it embodies in narrative form Dr. Wharton's own version of the diplomatic history of the Revolution.

The two parties of the Continental Congress were, according to his definition:

"(1.) The 'liberative' or 'expulsive,' whose sole object was to get rid of British authority, and which, from abhorrence of the British executive, had come to regard all executive authority as a tyranny; and (2) the 'constructive' or 'remedial,' whose members sought to set up a constitutional system of coördinate legislative, executive, and judiciary, in the place of the British Government."

The first school sought to govern through congressional committees, and believed that "earnest, untutored force would, in every contest, crush the minions of the despot. By the other school it was believed that force without system must, sooner or later, succumb to system directing force." Of the first school Samuel Adams was the leader, and to it John Adams belonged, until after the Revolution, when his views changed and he became a strong advocate of the constructive policy. Their chief coadjutors were the Lees. The chief of the "constructives" was Washington, and next to him came Franklin, the most prominent of their associates being Robert Morris, Robert R. Livingston, and John Jay. Jefferson and Hamilton, Dr. Wharton thinks, were both of the constructive school during the Revolution, their antagonism not developing until they were "pitted against each other like fighting-cocks" in Washington's cabinet.

Taking up the conduct of military affairs, the author declares that "the Lees and Adamses"—that is, the "destructives"—favored the militia system, while the "conservatives" favored regular troops enlisted for the whole period of the war. The same principle extended to the Revolutionary diplomacy:

"On the one side it was maintained that our relations with foreign nations ought to be freed from the artificial shackles which international law had imposed, and that we should approach them with blunt simplicity, demanding not only recognition, but aid. In other words, 'militia,' to use John Adams's illustration, 'sometimes gain victories over regular troops, even by departing from the rules.'"

The result of this "militia diplomacy" was humiliating, and was only saved by Franklin from being disastrous.

After discussing the case of the revolutionists against Great Britain, and her attitude towards the United States, from an extreme anti-British standpoint, Dr. Wharton examines the attitude of France towards this country. He traces the desire to assist America to the treaty of 1763 between France and England, by which the former lost Canada, certain West India Islands, and the domination of India. After this, France watched for an opportunity to retrieve her humiliation. Vergennes, therefore, "favored the American insurgents merely as engines for breaking down British supremacy, not as propagandists of cosmopolitan republicanism." But

"other motives came in and exercised a decisive influence. . . . There was, again, an enthusiasm among the young nobility and among officers in the army for America, which, even aside from the bitterness towards Britain with which it was mingled, had great effect on people as well as on court; and to this was added the sympathy of doctrinaire political philosophers who then and for some time afterwards had great power in forming French public opinion. By the enthusiasm of the young nobility the Queen—brilliant, bold, weary of the traditions of the old court, inconsiderate as to ultimate political results—was affected, and through her her husband was reached. But above this was the sense of right, which was uppermost in the breast of the unfortunate sovereign who then, with little political experience but high notions of duty as well as of prerogative, occupied the throne."

In order to help the American cause, the French Government secretly established, through Caron de Beaumarchais, the fictitious firm of "Hortalez & Co.," for the purpose of "selling" military supplies, and it was with Beaumarchais, the "merchant," that Silas Deane had his first material transactions. This episode Dr. Wharton dwells upon at some length, and it is one of the most interesting of the sections of the introduction. The correspondence itself is printed in the second volume. Much of it was omitted from Sparks's earlier work, and appears here for the first time. Similarly, the movement to have Count de Broglie appointed commander-in chief of the American forces—a topic to which Sparks, for reasons which were probably justifiable at the time of his editorship, excluded all allusion—is brought out. Under date of Decem-

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ber 6, 1776, Deane wrote to the committee of secret correspondence as follows:

"I submit one thought to you, whether, it you could engage a great general of the highest character, in Europe, such, for instance, as Prince Ferdinand, Marshal Broglie, or others of equal rank, to take the lead of your armies—whether such a step would not be politic, as it would give a character and credit to your military, and strike, perhaps, a greater panic in our enemies. I only suggest the thought, and leave you to confer with Baron de Kalb on the subject at large."

Kalb was preparing for his voyage to America at the time, and seriously believed that it would be possible for Broglie to be made temporarily a dictator in America; but he abandoned the whole idea as soon as he realized, from actual contact with them, the temperament and character of the revolutionists. The incident is chiefly interesting as showing the stupidity of our own representative in France.

After considering the attitude of Spain and other European states towards the United States, Dr. Wharton gives brief commentaries upon the Americans identified with the diplomacy of the Revolution. Of Franklin's despatches he says:

"It is questionable whether any diplomatic papers equal to them exist. They do not give, it is true, the exhaustive views of local politics which are to be found in Jay's letters from Spain, nor the elaborate summaries of European news to be found in the letters of Adams from Holland. They have not the element of gossip which made Malmesbury's Russian letters so entertaining, nor do they indulge in a rhetoric so majestic as that we meet in some instances in the papers of Webster. But for fitness for the purpose for which they were written, it may be questioned whether, taking them as a body, there are any diplomatic papers equal to them."

With Franklin, John Adams had no sympathy, and he became inordinately jealous of the lion of Paris. While giving Adams full credit for his great services in the Revolution, Dr. Wharton declares his nature unfitted him for diplomatic duties. Arthur Lee, on the other hand, is left with only his personal honesty as a redeeming quality. The correspondence shows him to have been of poor judgment, ambitious far beyond his deserts, of a jealous, insubordinate disposition. He was a positive injury to the cause as long as he had any connection with its diplomacy. Of Silas Deane Dr. Wharton says:

"Whatever we may think of Deane's early services in the Revolutionary cause, there is no doubt that he left Philadelphia [after his recall from his mission] thoroughly embittered by the unjust and insulting course of Congress towards him, and that, on his return to Europe, he soon fell under British control and accepted British pay."

To prove this, George III.'s letters to Lord North are quoted, in one of which the King speaks of Deane having been intrusted with £3,000 "in goods for America."

Of Robert R. Livingston, the first secretary for foreign affairs, who conducted the most important Revolutionary correspondence after 1781, Dr. Wharton gives the opinion that he "possessed not a few of Franklin's characteristics," and "did more than any one in the home Government in shaping its foreign policy."

A few words are devoted to the "British spies," and here it may be noticed that in speaking of Paul Wentworth the author has apparently entirely overlooked the conclusive evidence of his having been in British pay to be found in Stevens's 'Facsimiles of Manuscripts in European Archives relating to America.'

The correspondence embodied in the five succeeding volumes was gathered chiefly from the archives of the Department of State, and it is no reflection on Mr. Sparks's pioneer publication of sixty-three years ago to say that it is given now in a fuller and more satisfactory form than it was then. Other MS. sources are the Franklin correspondence in the American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia, the collection of the late George Bancroft, the John Paul Jones papers in the Library of Congress, the papers of Arthur Lee in Harvard College, the American Philosophical Society and the University of Virginia, and the extensive Sparks Collection in Harvard College. Of course, the diplomatic correspondence of the Revolution will never be complete until the intercepted despatches now in European archives have seen the light of day; but what we have here is undoubtedly one of the most important contributions to the history of the Revolution that have appeared for many years.

A MOUND OF CITIES.

A Mound of Many Cities; or, Tell el-Hesy Excavated. By Frederick Jones Bliss, M. A. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

TELL EL-HESY is an ancient ruin mound in the rolling country "between the foot-hills of the rocky Judæan mountains and the rich plain of Philistia, sixteen miles east of Gaza, a little to the north and twenty-three miles west of Hebron," generally supposed to represent the ancient city of Lachish. This site was selected for exploration in the spring of 1890 by Dr. W. M. Flinders Petrie, because its steep eastern side offered an opportunity of examining each stratum of its accumulated ruins without the necessity of digging down from the top. His excavations themselves were small and the "finds" insignificant, but Dr. Petrie knows how to make every potsherd speak. The mound was 120 feet in height, the lower 60 feet attributable to the hand of nature, the upper 60 consisting of the débris of a long series of cities, built for the most part of unbaked brick or adobe. This series of cities, the explorer concluded, covered a period of at least 1,200 years, from an "Amorite" city of about the seventeenth century down to a post-Israelitish city of the fifth century B. C.

It was in consequence of these excavations of Dr. Petrie that the directors of the Palestine Exploration Fund resolved to conduct more systematic and extensive excavations at this point. After much difficulty a firman was obtained, and Mr. F. J. Bliss, son of Dr. Bliss of the Syrian Protestant College at Beirut, was chosen to take charge of the work, a man who to a thorough American training adds a familiarity with the Arabic language and an intimate and sympathetic acquaintance with the people of the country, due to early and long residence among them. This little book of 201 well-spaced pages is the record of the excavations conducted by Mr. Bliss at Tell el-Hesy in the years 1891-'93. Mr. Bliss states that his object in writing the volume "has been to present facts with as slight an admixture of theory as possible"; and he has adhered to his purpose quite consistently. The book is a concise and exact statement of the results of his excavations, but told with such admirable logical and literary skill that the facts embody their own theory, the scattered bones gathering themselves together to form a complete skeleton, apparently of their own volition. The first chapter, "The Anatomy of a Tell," explains what is doubtless a source of perplexity to many even of those who have read much about the excavations of ancient ruins, how a ruin mound grows, in what way débris comes to be heaped up, and how excavations are or ought to be conducted, and the objects found interpreted. This chapter is really a valuable monograph in popular language on the subject of ruin mounds and the proper methods of excavation.

Following this are four chapters in which Mr. Bliss deals with the eleven cities whose remains he found in the mound, starting at the bottom and coming upwards, following the logical order instead of the order of discovery. His method of excavation, undoubtedly the best to be pursued in excavating a mound of the size and character of Tell el-Hesy, was to cut a great slice out of the side of the mound, very much of the shape of a quarter section of a pie, and study this carefully by strata, excavating one stratum entirely before proceeding to the next. Owing to the precipitous character of the eastern side of the mound, this could be done with peculiar ease at Tell el-Hesy; and the dirt removed, once thrown over the edge of the cliff, was in no danger of proving later to have been deposited on some spot important to be excavated, as is so often the case in the best conducted excavations. These chapters are provided with plans of the ruins laid bare in the excavations, so arranged as to admit of easy comparison one with another, and admirably supplied with cuts of the objects found, which are explained and commented on in the text.

The sixth chapter, "The Chronology of the Tell," deals with the dates of the cities unearthed and the method of determining those dates. Mr. Bliss found but few inscribed objects—one inscribed clay tablet, a couple of insignificant Greek and Phœnician inscriptions on pottery, consisting of a few letters only, and some Egyptian scarabs. Outside of these he was compelled to rely on the succession of strata and the amount and character of débris in each, on the pottery found, and on the use of iron, bronze, and stone utensils. In fact Tell el-Hesy was very barren in archæological finds, but what was found has been treated with great skill, so that Mr. Bliss is able to give a sort of synopsis of the history of the place, assigning to each city a fairly well-established date. The lowest city, agreeing with Dr. Petrie, he assigns to a period at or before 1700 B. C. It precedes, therefore, by some centuries, the occupation of the country by the Israelites. The four following cities also belong to the period preceding the Hebrew conquest. It was in the last of these, numbered "City III." by Mr. Bliss, according to a very cautious plan which recognizes a "Sub. I." and a "Sub. II.," that he discovered the tablet with a cuneiform inscription which was the most important find of his expedition.

In an article published in the Journal of the Society of Biblical Literature and Exegesis in 1887, it had been pointed out that in the thirty-second chapter of Jeremiah, in the account of the purchase of a piece of land by Jeremiah from Hanamel, his cousin, the original text shows that the record of the purchase was written on a clay tablet, covered with an envelope of clay, on which the contract was repeated, enclosed in an earthen jar, and buried in the earth, after the method pursued in Babylonia. From this the writer argued that the Hebrews had the same method of writing on clay as the Babylonians, and that some day inscribed tablets would be found in Palestine. Prof. Sayce had already reached the same conclusion on other grounds, particularly because

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of the discovery of clay tablets inscribed with cuneiform characters in Cappadocia, and at Tell el-Amarna in Egypt. It was in the autumn of 1877 that a peasant woman discovered at Tell el-Amarna those famous 320 clay tablets inscribed with Babylonian cuneiform script. They proved to be letters written by various potentates to the Egyptian king, and among them were letters from the Egyptian governors of various subject cities, including Jerusalem, Gaza, and other Palestinian towns well known in Bible history. In these letters mention is made of a certain Zimrida, who was Governor of Lachish for the Egyptian King about 1450 B. C. The tablet found by Mr. Bliss at Tell el-Hesy was of the same general appearance as the Palestinian tablet found at Tell el-Amarna, written in the same script and composed in the same dialect. The name Zimrida also occurs in this tablet, but, owing to the mutilated condition of the inscription, it is impossible to determine certainly whether it was written to Zimrida or by him or about him, and Mr. Bliss does not feel, therefore, that this discovery settles finally the question whether Tell el-Hesy is Lachish or Eglon, which seems to be the possible alternative. As the first cuneiform tablet ever found in Palestine, this possesses a peculiar interest. It is also by many centuries the most ancient inscription yet found in any part of the Holy Land. In view of what we now know about the use of such clay tablets in Palestine in the most remote period, it seems strange, not that one such tablet has at last been found, but that none were found earlier, and that only one was found. Prof. Sayce, meeting Mr. Bliss in Egypt before he began his excavations, assured him that he would certainly find tablets at Tell el-Hesy. Nevertheless, Prof. Sayce was almost incredulous when the discovery was first announced to him, and would not believe that the tablet was genuine until he had received and studied a squeeze sent to him by Mr. Bliss. Mr. Bliss, on the other hand, seems to have been more or less sceptical about tablets at the outset, but greatly disappointed when he found but one. However, archæologists everywhere recognize that the discovery of this one tablet has established beyond gainsaying that the systematic excavation of Palestinian sites will give us ultimately contemporary written documents of the times of the ancient prophets and kings of Israel. It must be remembered that outside of Jerusalem practically no excavations had ever been conducted in Palestine before.

This tablet dates the fifth city before the conquest of Palestine by the Hebrews, as already pointed out. The Israelite period probably began with the sixth or seventh city and continued through the ninth. Unfortunately there are no inscriptions from this period excepting four letters in Phœnician script on one potsherd and three on another, and seven Greek letters rudely scratched on the base of a lamp-stand. The last two cities, the tenth and eleventh, belonged to the period succeeding the exile. They are dated by Mr. Bliss at 500 and 400 B. C., chiefly on account of the polished Greek pottery ware found among their ruins, and his more complete excavations accordingly corroborate to a remarkable degree the conclusions reached by Dr. Petrie.

The seventh and eighth chapters are entitled respectively "Sketch of the Expedition" and "The Arabs and the Fellahin." They are delightful and amusing as well as instructive reading, and to the general reader will probably constitute the most interesting part of a very interesting book. In the former of these two chapters Mr. Bliss relates how, on receiving his appointment to conduct the expedition, he went to Egypt and spent a month with Dr. Petrie at the pyramid of Meydûn, watching "that most energetic of excavators," and studying his methods. It was towards the end of his stay there that Dr. Petrie's book, 'Tell el-Hesy (Lachish),' arrived, upon which Mr. Bliss "retired with it for two days into the sculptured tomb of Ra-Hotep, which furnished an atmosphere both artistic and serious, as befitted such archæological studies." That he profited by the book and by Dr. Petrie's instructions is evident from the work which he did; and he has told the story of that work as archæologists seldom succeed in doing, in a manner equally edifying to the savant and charming to the lover of good reading and pure English. He is, moreover, very modest and self-contained, and scarcely lets you see that he had any difficulties to overcome, or hardships or dangers to encounter, or serious illness to undergo.

It is gratifying to know that on account of the admirable manner in which Mr. Bliss conducted his work at Tell el-Hesy he has been selected by the committee of the fund to conduct the excavations at Jerusalem for which a two years' firman has been obtained. It is to be hoped that some day Mr. Bliss will have the good fortune to report the discovery in Palestinian soil, not of one inscribed tablet, but of a hundred; and if such tablets are not found at Jerusalem, they will be at Samaria, or Gaza or other similar sites, which ought to be explored before long, now that Turkish jealousy of any work in the Holy Land seems to be relaxing.

A CAVALRY OFFICER UNDER WELLINGTON.

The Diary of a Cavalry Officer in the Peninsular and Waterloo Campaigns. By the late Lieut.-Col. William Tomkinson, Sixteenth Light Dragoons. Edited by his Son. London: Swan Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan.

THIS volume is full of interest, especially to the student of military history. The Diary is remarkable for its simplicity and directness, as well as for its evident accuracy and for the absence of all exaggeration. It is accompanied by portraits, maps, and a plan of the field of Waterloo.

William Tomkinson, the youngest son of a Cheshire squire, joined the Sixteenth Light Dragoons, now called the Sixteenth Lancers, just a year before the opening of the campaign in Spain and Portugal. His regiment left England in April, 1809, and, shortly after landing at Lisbon, was, with the rest of the British army, reviewed at Coimbra by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington. The inhabitants of Coimbra, dreading the ravages of the French, received the British troops with acclamation, and showered flowers upon them as they marched through the city. The French were indeed ruthless in their destruction of fine buildings. Tomkinson says that they employed regular working parties, who used scaffolding to reach the tops of the decorated pillars. He adds, in reference to the great convent of Alcabaça: "It exceeded anything I ever saw as a work of destruction. They had burnt what they could, and destroyed the remainder with an immense deal of trouble. The embalmed kings and queens were taken out of their tombs, and the fine tesselated pavement picked up."

Soult, in command of the French, was then at Oporto, and the British forces, amounting to some 17,000 men, advanced from Coimbra without delay. In almost the first skirmish Tomkinson, then only nineteen, was severely wounded. His life was saved by his horse, which went full gallop to the rear. Although shot in the neck and through both arms, he kept his seat until out of the range of the enemy's fire. He suffered greatly from his wounds, and for some time could get nothing but tallow as a dressing. After the lapse of a month the surgeon found that one of the large plated buttons, weighing nearly half an ounce, on Tomkinson's jacket had been driven by a shot into the fleshy part of his left arm. When the button was removed he felt instant relief, but he had to be invalided to England. Always hardy, he declared that his own recovery, like that of other severely wounded officers, was due to the scanty fare and the little rest, or frequently none at all, which they got. The surgical knowledge of the present day would probably not support his opinion. During his voyage home, which lasted a month, the forty-five French prisoners on board the transport were more than once on the point of overpowering the English crew and passengers, who numbered fifteen in all, and taking the vessel into a French port.

Tomkinson was soon back from his enforced rest. During the remainder of the Peninsular campaign the duty was very severe. Officers and men seldom undressed, but slept on the ground close to their horses, which were kept bridled all night. Tomkinson does not give his opinion of the French marshals, but Wellington was accustomed to say that although Clauzel was, on the whole, the most formidable, he could never sleep comfortably when Masséna was in the field. Wellington thought that Marmont, otherwise an excellent general, was apt to spread his army too much. This caused his defeat at Salamanca, for Wellington made a sudden attack on the French centre with his whole force, and, as he said, "defeated forty thousand men in forty minutes." Soult complained that there was no beating the British soldiers, for they would not run; and when Badajos fell he was so much enraged that he broke all the plates and dishes in his house. The French troops subsisted entirely on the country, requiring from the Portuguese rations for their men and forage for their horses, besides taking every baggage-animal they could find, all without payment. The British forces drew nearly all their supplies from England, through Lisbon, and paid ready money for whatever they bought in Portugal. The French burned every town and village through which they passed, and killed numbers of the peasants. The English soldiers not unfrequently found the dead body of a peasant at the bottom of one of the large wine casks out of which they had been drinking. The Portuguese endeavored to hide their grain, but the French generally discovered these stores by flooding the houses and digging in the places where the water sank. Tomkinson considered the advance of the British army through such an exhausted country a wonderful exploit. From October, 1810, to the following April he did not see one village in which the inhabitants had remained; they flocked to the towns, where many died of fever, and more of starvation. The English officers gave them soup and bread once a day, and Tomkinson says that this single meal enabled many to walk who had not been able to move from weakness. The British troops also suffered from want of food; meat could be got, as the Portuguese were glad to part with the oxen which they could not feed, but there was

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scarcely any bread or biscuit. The horses were frequently eight or nine days without corn; they ate the straw out of the peasants mattresses, and then were reduced to withered grass, which, according to Tomkinson, "they ate with so much avidity that they swallowed many of the stones at the roots, and died in consequence."

Wellington was very popular with his troops. Some of the soldiers called him "that long-nosed beggar that licks the French." He was up every morning at six, and wrote till breakfast at nine. He saw officers and received reports until three, then rode till six, and wrote again from nine till midnight. One of the commissaries complained to Wellington that Gen. Crawford had threatened to hang him if the supplies were not produced by a certain time. Wellington replied, "Then I advise you to produce them, for he is quite certain to do it." Tomkinson gives careful accounts of all the battles and sieges during the Peninsular war, at most of which he was present. Some of the storming parties at Ciudad Rodrigo found that their ladders, made out of a rotten Spanish car, gave way; they stuck their bayonets into the sod walls, and by that means carried the works. Mrs. Dalbiac, the wife of an English colonel, accompanied her husband throughout the campaign, sleeping in his tent, or even in the open air. After the battle of Salamanca, when above five thousand of the troops under Wellington were killed or wounded, she passed the night on the field searching for her husband, who happily was not among the dead. Tomkinson adds: "I cannot conceive a more unpleasant position for a woman to be in, particularly at night." Tomkinson gives an interesting account of his friend Somers Cocks, a most promising young outpost officer, who seemed "to grow in his saddle." Cocks's men were devoted to him, and he was indefatigable in his duty. He was always careful of his men's comfort, and when nothing could be found in which to cook their beef, made a capital frying-pan out of the top of a French brass drum. Cocks was killed at the siege of Burgos, to the great regret of Wellington, who said that "if he had outlived his campaigns, which from the way he exposed himself was morally impossible, he would have become one of the first generals of England." Tomkinson rode the same horse, "Bob," through all the five campaigns in the Peninsula, and when, after nearly five years of service in the field, "Bob" was sent back to Cheshire, he knew his way at once to his old stable. He lived for many years, and carried his master with the pack of harriers which Tomkinson kept on leaving the army.

Tomkinson spent a year in England on the conclusion of the Peninsular war, and in April, 1815, he embarked for Ostend in order to take part in the Waterloo campaign. Wellington, when in the Peninsula, had said that if Napoleon had taken the command there his name alone would have been equal to an additional 40,000 men. Tomkinson observes: "Napoleon has only the Duke to beat that he may say success has attended him with every general in Europe. It is an anxious time." Tomkinson's account of the battle of Waterloo is particularly graphic and full of details. His regiment was the only cavalry regiment in the service that went through both the Peninsular and the Waterloo campaigns. For a day or two before the 18th of June, the day of the battle of Waterloo, the weather had been extremely wet. Tomkinson's regiment selected a field of clover-root as a dry spot, but it was soon knee-deep in mud; there were no tents, and the fires would not burn. Men and horses were drenched, but Tomkinson lay down in his cloak, and, having been up and hard at work since two in the morning of the 17th, managed to get a couple of hours' sleep. As soon as it was light on the 18th of June Wellington posted his troops. He had, according to Tomkinson, nearly 32,000 infantry and 7,000 cavalry on which he could rely; the cavalry being, as Wellington told Blücher, the finest in the world. Wellington's opinion of the Dutch and Belgian troops was not high. The Prince of Orange and the Spanish General Alava had served on Wellington's staff in the Peninsula. The Prince said to Alava, "Well, Alava, what do you think your Spaniards would have done had they been present at Waterloo?" Alava replied, "Your Highness, I do not think they would have run away as your Belgians did before the *first* shot was fired." Tomkinson adds that men belonging to the Netherlands troops would hasten to carry a wounded comrade off the field, and then begin plundering in the rear. The Netherlands and Hanoverian cavalry did nothing but plunder in the rear, riding alongside the road and cutting at the men in charge of the baggage. Tomkinson's regiment saved their baggage by their swords.

The whole of the field of Waterloo was covered with the finest wheat, and the ground was so deep that numberless shells burst where they fell, and many round shot never rose from the spot at which they first struck the earth, instead of, as usual, hopping for half a mile. It was past eleven on the morning of the 18th of June before the French army assembled. Tomkinson says: "We had not long been on our ground before the cannonade opened and became general along the whole line. . . . The cannonade continued along the line through the day." Repeatedly the artillery, charged by the French cavalry, "had to leave their guns and take refuge in the squares of infantry, and the instant the French cavalry turned to the rear they ran to their guns, firing at them in their retreat." Tomkinson describes the last desperate effort of Napoleon's Old Guard, which had overawed every other army by their steady regular advance. When the British infantry charged instead of retreating, the Old Guard "set off down the hill and were seen running away on every side in the greatest confusion." The pursuit ended at ten o'clock at night. Tomkinson calculated the strength of the French army as 66,000 infantry and 12,000 cavalry, not including 30,000 men under Grouchy, and he was convinced that, in spite of Napoleon's statement that Grouchy disobeyed his orders in not coming up on the 18th of June, Grouchy really had received positive orders to attack the Prussians only and to move on Wavre. On the morning after Waterloo, Tomkinson rode over the field, which he says had more the appearance of a breach carried by assault than an extended field of battle. The peasants for miles round had assembled, and were plundering all they could get, and stripping the wounded as well as the dead. On entering Paris, Tomkinson writes: "Looking at our present march to dethrone the great Napoleon, and our commencement on a strip of land in the lines of Torres Vedras, then the only army he had not subdued, and that army but a handful in comparison with his hordes in every part of Europe, we can scarcely believe ourselves the same."

Tomkinson, during his six years of active service, was at least a hundred times under fire, but he was only once wounded. The button which was on that occasion driven into his arm is still preserved: the shank, which the surgeon was most anxious to probe for, remains on the jacket. Tomkinson received the Peninsular and Waterloo medals, with clasps for the actions of Busaco, Fuentes, Salamanca, and Vitoria. He retired on half-pay in 1821, and in 1872 he died at the age of eighty-three. The Diary is dedicated to the colonel and officers of his old regiment.

Arthur Schopenhauer's Sämmtliche Werke. Six volumes.—*Arthur Schopenhauer's Nachlass.* Four volumes. Herausgegeben. von Eduard Grisebach. Leipzig: P. Reclam.

"My curse on any one who, in future issues of my works, deliberately makes any changes in them, be it a period, or even a single word, a syllable, a letter, a punctuation-mark."

"I believe I can claim the honorable title of an *oligograph*, since these five volumes contain everything I ever wrote, and are the fruit of my seventy-three years of life. The reason is that I wished to be sure of the uninterrupted attention of my readers, and therefore never wrote unless I had something to say. Were this principle adopted generally, literature would undergo a great shrinkage."

The above sentences occur in a sketch of a preface to a complete edition of his works which Schopenhauer wrote shortly before his death, and which Herr Grisebach prints complete for the first time ('Werke,' vol. vi., 281). Schopenhauer made his apostle Frauenstädt his literary executor, although he knew him to be somewhat careless in citing from his works, and once wrote to him that he wished he had some of Kilzer's "noble fanaticism" for accuracy. On another occasion he thus admonished Frauenstädt: "Clip ducats and louis d'ors, but do not clip my sentences, as is now the fashion. I write as *I* write and no one else; here every word has its value and its necessity, even if you do not feel or recognize it."

Such being Schopenhauer's sentiments, it is easy to imagine his indignation could he have known how Frauenstädt would edit his works, and how much inaccurate and spurious matter would for thirty years be accepted as genuine. The expiration of the copyright on his works was the signal for the appearance of a large number of reprints of all or parts of them. Among these new editions by far the best and most authentic is that of Grisebach, who seems indeed to possess the "noble fanaticism" for accuracy which Schopenhauer desired in his editor. Grisebach has compared Schopenhauer's books word by word with the original manuscripts in the Berlin Library, and has ascertained that the older editions literally swarm with errors; indeed, he speaks of Frauenstädt's "inexcusably slovenly treatment of the text," and as he gives full particulars in each case, the reader is able to see that this is not too strong language. Not only did Frauenstädt adopt a different plan from Schopenhauer's (with which he was acquainted) of arranging the sequence of the different treatises, but he altered or suppressed sentences, added notes of his own, and either deliberately or from carelessness often changed the language and style. No less than 1,619 corrupt passages are enumerated, and, on pages 389-392, specimens are given.

Accuracy is by no means the only merit of this edition. It includes, in the four volumes of the 'Nachlass,' much admirable matter that has never been in print at all, or only in a mutilated condition. Volume six of the 'Werke' contains a concise biographic sketch of forty pages; Schopenhauer's own fifteen-page sketch of his life, in Latin, and 114 pages of bibliographic notes, which are a marvel of German

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industry; and, most welcome of all, an excellent index of fifty-three pages, covering the six volumes of the 'Werke,' while the 'Nachlass' has another index for the remaining volumes. The first index is based partly on Schopenhauer's own index to his manuscript-books; and these entries are distinguished from those made by the editor by a difference in the type.

The first volume of the 'Nachlass' is a little book of 178 pages, containing Schopenhauer's translation from the Spanish of Balthasar Gracian's 'Oráculo Manual, y arte de prudencia.' It was made in 1832, but although it was infinitely superior to any other translation of this famous little book of maxims, and was commended as such by one of the leading Spanish scholars in Germany, no publisher could be found for it till thirty years later, when Frauenstädt had it printed. Grisebach's edition not merely is more correct, but includes a characteristic literary note of several pages, written by Schopenhauer for the publisher's instruction. In reading these maxims of Gracian, as in reading the works of Lichtenberg, one often comes across germs of ideas which Schopenhauer developed and presented in a new light in his own writings. Along with Kant, Plato, and Goethe, they appear to have been his favorite authors.

The second volume of the 'Nachlass' contains fragmentary matter relating to Schopenhauer's university lectures and his method; the last sixty-four pages being devoted to a violent onslaught on slovenly journalists and other murderers of the German language. These pages are by no means antiquated, as good taste is still painfully absent in most German writing, although much progress has been made since his death. The third volume is devoted to notes and comments, mostly brief, on Plato, Locke, Kant, and the post-Kantian philosophers. The appendix includes several letters written in English.

By far the most interesting and important of the volumes of the 'Nachlass' is the fourth, which the editor has entitled "New Paralipomena." It is longer than the others (510 pages), and consists chiefly of short and pithy aphorisms and paragraphs on philosophy, history of philosophy, the intellect, logic and dialectics, philosophy of nature, ethics, politics and law, death, pessimism, suicide, religion, style, criticism, authorship, etc. The origin of this collection is a matter of interest. It seems that Schopenhauer had among his MSS. ten bound ones which he called "manuscript-books," and which bore the following titles: Reisebuch, Foliant, Brieftasche, Quartant, Adversaria, Cogitata, Cholerabuch, Pandekta, Spicilegia, Senilia. In one of these, "Cogitata," he intimates that if he should not survive a new edition of his principal work, these writings should be printed as supplementary matter in confirmation and elucidation of that work. Fortunately he did survive it, and when the second edition was put into type, he inserted whatever he could find an appropriate place for. This process was repeated in his later books, all the matter thus transferred being crossed with a lead pencil. Much, however, remained unpencilled, and of this the new volume of "Parerga" is principally made up. It contains much that has never been in type before, and is on the whole one of the most suggestive and thought-stimulating of his works. Few of the paragraphs cover as much as a page, and we should not be surprised if this conciseness should make the new "Paralipomena" the most popular of all these volumes, as it will appeal to the large class whose limited knowledge of German or lack of time does not allow them to plunge into the more elaborate treatises. Here the reader will find samples, as it were, of all of Schopenhauer's idiosyncrasies and views—his unbounded belief in his own genius; his contempt for his contemporaries who ran after such "charlatans" as Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel, while ignoring him; his general pessimism; his love of art; his preference for Buddhism over Judaism and Christianity; his wonderful insight into psychological problems, and fearless exposure of shams and humbug; his admirably clear and graphic style, degenerating sometimes (especially when Hegel is in question) into blackguardism—and so on. It may be added that these ten volumes are neatly printed and bound (size 5½ by 4 inches), and cost, together, only $3.25 in Germany.

The Voyages of Capt. Luke Foxe of Hull and Capt. Thomas James of Bristol in search of a Northwest Passage, in 1631-2. London: Hakluyt Society. 1894. Maps and illustrations.

THE eighty-eighth publication of the Hakluyt Society, in two large volumes, comprises the voyages of Foxe and James to Hudson's Bay, edited, with copious annotations, by Miller Christy. The narratives of these two explorers are remarkable as being almost the first separately published English works describing voyages in search of a northwest passage. The narrations of most of their predecessors are incorporated in the collections of Hakluyt and Purchas. The volumes of Foxe and James describe explorations in the same region, undertaken in the same year and with the same object in view. Both have now become scarce and valuable, a perfect copy of either being very rare and worth a considerable sum. The reasons for reprinting them together in the series of the Hakluyt Society are, therefore, obvious. The work of Capt. James originally appeared as a small quarto of 150 pages in 1633. It consists entirely of an account of his voyage, and is chiefly remarkable for its exaggeration of the dangers of his navigation and wintering. Foxe's narrative was published in London in 1635; it is a small quarto of 275 pages, with the punning title of 'The Northwest Fox.' Less than half of the work is occupied by the author's account of his own voyage. The remainder comprises abstracts of the explorations of fifteen of the principal navigators who had preceded him in the search for a northwest passage from the earliest times. Many of them are of course derived from the collections of Hakluyt and Purchas, but three of them, relating to the discoveries of Gibbons, Hawkridge, and Sir Thomas Button, are of especial interest, inasmuch as they contain almost all the extant information respecting the voyages they describe. The explorations of Button are of much importance, and Foxe deserves no little credit for rescuing them from oblivion.

Hudson, as every schoolboy knows, had sailed westward through a noble strait some 600 miles, and had then entered the vast bay which bears his name. The eastern part of this he explored before (his provisions running low) the mutiny arose which cost him his life. It must have seemed to him probable that there were other passages leading from this bay or sea to the main Western Ocean. The mutinous survivors of his expedition on their homeward passage ran upon a rock near Cape Digges, and remained fast for about eight hours, when a "great floud (which they, by this accident, took first notice of) came from the westward and set them on flote." This flood or tide was regarded at the time as strong evidence of an opening into the Western or South Sea. In search of it, accordingly, Button at once set forth, proceeding with energy and discretion, and in all but his main object his exploration was remarkably successful. He completed the discovery of the whole coast line of Hudson's (or, as it was long known, of Button's) Bay, except that part between Cape Henrietta Maria and Port Nelson, where, however, no passage could be hoped for. He also, as noted prophetically by Purchas, "found the variation of the compasse to rise and fall in admirable proportion, as if the true Magneticall Pole might be discovered."

About three months after Button sailed, in 1612, the King granted to the Adventurers who had sent him out, a royal charter of incorporation as "The Company of the Merchants' Discoverers of the Northwest Passage," with Prince Henry as "Supreme Protector." After Button's return, though the disappointment must have been keen to those ardent seekers for a passage to Cathay, hope was not wholly quenched, and his voyage was followed by that of Gibbons in 1614 and those of Bylot, and Baffin, and Hawkridge. From 1619 to 1630 effort seems to have ceased, when in the latter year Foxe, who was a thoroughly able and judicious seaman of much experience, aided by Sir Thomas Button, Sir John Brooke, and Henry Briggs, the celebrated mathematician, made application through the Adventurers for the use of the *Charles* pinnace for a voyage of discovery on the west of Hudson's Bay. The grant was made, but, owing to the lateness of the season, Foxe did not sail until May 5, 1631. Meanwhile the friends of Captain James of Bristol were stirred into activity by the proposed voyage, and fitted out, with the endorsement of Thomas Roe, the ship *Henrietta Maria* on a rival exploration. James was an excellent astronomer but an indifferent seaman, though otherwise a man of more learning than Foxe. The *Henrietta Maria* sailed two days before its rival.

Foxe's crew was not left to him to choose, and he was hampered by instructions not the most judicious; his vessel appears to have been rather defective also. In spite of these disadvantages he carefully searched the west shores of Hudson's Bay, explored the hitherto unknown southern extreme, and then sailed northward and explored Foxe's Channel to lat. 66° 47′ N. Illness broke out among his men, so he turned back, late in September, and on the 31st of October reached England; in his own words: "I came into the Downes with all my men recovered and sound, not having lost one man, nor boy, nor any manner of tackling, having been forth neere six months." Mr. Miller Christy remarks with justice that this bears powerful testimony to the skill with which he had conducted the expedition. Yet, for sensibly returning in the same year that he sailed, Foxe was ridiculed and abused by those who either were partisans of Capt. James or losers by his failure to discover a passage.

James, in fitting out, though advised to the contrary, refused to take any men of previous arctic experience. He was well equipped, and everything he desired seems to have been liberally provided. His story is a veritable book of Lamentations; and the imminent perils to which he was constantly exposed, according to his own account, become almost comic in their monotony. He explored the west and southern shores of Hudson Bay and what is now known as James Bay, was overtaken by winter at Charlton Island, where he built several houses on shore and adopted the unique plan of sink-

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ing his ship to preserve her from injury. Luckily he was able to raise her in the spring, and after various harrowing adventures, he reached Bristol October 22, 1632. He was well received on his return and appointed to a king's vessel in the Irish Sea, where he did good service. His death occurred in the spring of 1635, and a few weeks later Foxe followed him, being buried at Whitby July 20, 1635.

The present publication is in the usual excellent style of the society, and the editorial contributions of Mr. Christy, if less concise and clear than might be wished, will nevertheless afford a store of useful information to those whose studies lead them to make use of these volumes.

Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia: A New and Enlarged Edition. Charles Kendall Adams, Editor-in-chief; Assisted by a corps of thirty-six Editors, composed of the ablest and most distinguished scholars in the United States, etc. Vols. I.—IV. D. Appleton & Co. 1894.

JOHNSON'S CYCLOPÆDIA was first published in 1874, and was the first small cyclopædia which adopted the plan of many departments with a very eminent specialist at the head of each. There are advantages and disadvantages in such a plan. The great end which it is possible to bring about in that way is a broad and comprehensive view of human knowledge, by men who are able to inform us what is the present state of ideas in their several departments. The great danger lies in a want of unity, proportion, and consistency. Moreover, a large part of the substance of such a work, *e. g.*, the biographies, is not amenable to effective control by specialists. Hence the scientific portions of the original Johnson were much the best, and were peculiarly within the province of the editor, F. A. P. Barnard. In the new edition the Cyclopædia preserves a good deal of its spirit of life, and has been brought up to the times. We must say, however, that the last volume which has appeared, the fourth, while it is an improvement in some respects on those that went before it, is less like the original edition. It is a great mistake to suppose—if anybody does suppose so—that no great literary art is called for in a short cyclopædic article. There is no art in which success requires more peculiar original powers nor a more severe or longer training. It is safe to say there are not thirty real masters of it in this country to-day. But there are 300 contributors to the fourth volume of this Cyclopædia. Some of the least meritorious articles it contains, dreary and antiquated, bear very eminent and deservedly famous names.

Comparing the different departments of the work, if we must select one part as distinctly inferior to any other, it will be logic, which, though written by different hands, is pretty uniformly out of date and feeble. But incomparably the most interesting articles are those relating to linguistics. Those which carry the signature of Prof. Wheeler are all excellent, and there are others which really convey something worth remembering. The legal articles are very clear. The articles on physics are well enough; but there is nothing one will not find everywhere. The mathematics (excepting the débris of former editions) is not nearly so well done as the physics. The biological papers are of various degrees of merit. Some are very learned, others very instructive. The plan of distributing the biography among the thirty-six editors does not work well, especially in the case of living persons. The illustrations, which are confined to wood-cuts in the text, are of a wide range of merit. The maps will not bear comparison with those of Brockhaus.

This new edition, being in eight volumes and costing $48, can no longer be reckoned among the small encyclopædias. It has about as much matter as the new edition of 'Brockhaus's Konversations-Lexikon,' in sixteen volumes, and the total price is the same. There is still room for a methodical encyclopædia, not too large to be read through by an industrious person, say, in a year, and readable, withal; a work which should aim to convey information of large truths rather than of minute facts, and which should be written with something like the Peter Parley art, so as to be read with pleasure by old and young—the whole to be the product of not more than half-a-dozen masterly pens.

Victor Hugo après 1852. Par Edmond Biré. Paris: Perrin & Cie.

WE have here the fourth and last volume of M. Biré's *éreintement* or showing-up of Victor Hugo. There is not much left of the great poet, and nothing at all of the man, when M. Biré has done with him. In the brief preface to the present volume, the author tells the story of his work, begun, he states, through admiration of the poet and continued through love of truth. No doubt M. Biré is sincere in thinking and saying that love of truth has alone actuated him, but no reader can be long in coming to the conclusion that M. Biré soon blinded himself to his own motives as thoroughly as Victor Hugo to his. The vindictive animus is too plain, especially in this last volume; the writer plays too evidently the part of *advocatus diaboli:* he takes a savage pleasure in blackening the private character of a man who was the idol of France and is one of her greatest literary glories. He presents his facts and construes them like a special pleader. He has allowed himself to be drawn, almost unconsciously, into a virulent defaming of a great name under pretext of revealing to the world the true Victor Hugo. It is this virulence of speech, this vindictiveness of purpose, which minimizes the value of the work. That Hugo had many faults, that he was outrageously vain, that he had been a weathercock in politics, a shallow thinker, a follower instead of a leader of men, that his private life was not above reproach, others, more temperate than M. Biré, had already told the world and in a more decorous and convincing manner. That much of Hugo's work is poor, a large part ridiculous, that his drama has, in the main, lost its hold on the public, and that his novels are not models of their kind, able critics have long since fully stated. The fierce light which, in M. Biré's book, beats upon the poet, brings out startlingly every defect of the man and his works, magnifying and even darkening them, and, at the same time, destroying by its glare the real and numerous beauties which these works contain.

Faguet and Morel-Fatio, to name two only, drew sufficient attention to the weak points of Hugo as a writer, a scholar, and a man, and their criticism is on its face unmarked by bitterness. The mass of information collected by M. Biré in his four volumes is of high and undoubted worth—no student of Hugo and of romanticism can afford to ignore it; but it could and should have been presented with impartiality and a just sense of proportion. M. Biré quotes an approving notice of his first volume, 'Victor Hugo avant 1830,' by M. Brunetière, but in his method of quoting he sins precisely as Hugo sinned, for he says nothing of the qualifying remarks of the great critic, and he makes no mention whatever of M. Brunetière's admirable review of the next two volumes, 'Victor Hugo après 1830,' which was published in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of October, 1891. Nevertheless, students of French literature are indebted to M. Biré for the information he has supplied, which will enable them better to understand and appreciate the work of Hugo. Bearing in mind the reservations which must absolutely be made in reading this volume, as well as the three preceding ones, there is large profit to be had from the series.

Slav and Moslem. By J. Milliken Napier Brodhead. Aiken, S. C.: Aiken Publishing Co.

THE natural inference from the title of this work would be that it dealt with the relations of the Russian and Turkish Empires, with possible side glances at the difficult questions connected with the Balkan Peninsula. The reader who begins it with any such delusion will be severely disappointed. It is a hotch-potch of Russian history, with no excuse for existence. Large slices of Rambaud's 'History of Russia' are copied and juxtaposed in a manner which amply deserves the inelegant term higgledy-piggledy; the result being often that events are wrenched out of their connection and hurled into impossible attitudes a hundred years or more away. Writers upon Russia of the most miscellaneous description have been drawn upon with little discrimination, and their utterances have been combined in the most bewilderingly incoherent, crazy-quilt pattern, both as to chronology and correlation, which it has ever been our fortune to witness. Nearly every proper name in the book is spelled wrong, and there is no uniformity of spelling, even in such ordinary words as Czar, Tzar, Byzance, Byzantium; while grossly careless errors like "Herzegovonia" are lamentably frequent. Every time that the writer "Stepniak" is referred to, what the author supposes to be his real name is supplied in parenthesis, and is always wrongly spelled. It is time that the public understood that Prof. Dragomanoff and "Stepniak" are not identical. The blame cannot be laid on the printers, though the proof-reading is as remarkable as the rest, and though the punctuation is of so extraordinary a character that Lord Timothy Dexter's plan of having none in the body of the book and a large assortment at the end seems preferable.

A Student's Text-Book of Botany. By Sidney H. Vines, M.A., D.Sc., F.R.S., Sherardian Professor of Botany in the University of Oxford. First Half. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 8vo, pp. x, 430.

ABOUT fifteen years ago there was published, under the supervision of Prof. Vines, an English translation of Prof. Prantl's 'Lehrbuch der Botanik,' an elementary text-book which had already met with considerable success in Germany. When it became necessary to revise this translation, it appeared best to Prof. Vines to increase the matter of the book considerably, so "that while retaining all that has made it of value to beginners, it might be more useful to those engaged in the advanced study of the science." The result is, that in this first half the portions covering 130 pages in the edition of 1881 have been rewritten and augmented until they have come to occupy 430 pages. Consequently, while the general

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plan and treatment are retained, this revision has resulted in practically a new book emanating from an English rather than a German source.

The volume just issued contains Part I., on "Morphology," Part II., on "The Intimate Structure of Plants," and Part III., on "The Classification of Plants," up to the flowering plants, the classification of which, together with the chapters on physiology, are to appear in the second half. The chapters on morphology and histology are very carefully rewritten and the treatment is consistently comparative throughout. The embryological characteristics are everywhere properly considered, and are given their due prominence in the arrangements and discussions which follow. This comparative method, which has not been employed either so fully or so harmoniously in any English or German text-book before, has necessitated the use of a considerable number of technical expressions taken directly from special treatises and not familiar to the average student. With the aid of such terms, carefully selected, the homologies of the various structures among the higher plants are accurately and concisely indicated in phraseology readily intelligible; and the adoption of these terms in a text-book destined to be widely used will help greatly toward putting the comparative anatomy of plants upon as firm a basis as that secured by zoölogists for the animal kingdom.

This volume is compact and handy, the typography is excellent; the illustrations are all familiar, but are duly accredited, and introduced with excellent discrimination. It is to be hoped that the second volume, with index and glossary, will soon be forthcoming.

An Historical Geography of the British Colonies. By C. P. Lucas. Vol. III.: West Africa. With maps. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1894. 8vo, pp. 283.

THE story of the West African colonies forms the least creditable chapter in the history of modern times. It is the record, not of victories of civilization over barbarism, of the development of natural resources, of the foundation and upbuilding of states, but of mere mercantile enterprises, in which the principal source of gain for more than two centuries was human lives. The colonies still consist mainly of detached trading settlements in which neither manufacturing, agriculture, nor mining is encouraged. This condition is, no doubt, largely owing to the climate, but it is also an inheritance of the slave trade, which stereotyped savagery and paralyzed industry. In the first half of the volume before us the operations of all the European nations, the Portuguese, Dutch, and French, as well as the English, on the West Coast, from its discovery to the present time, are narrated. This general review is followed by separate chapters on the different British colonies, the Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Lagos, and the Niger Protectorates. From this it appears that the most satisfactory condition is to be found in Lagos, the least in Sierra Leone. Among the extraordinary variety of races which people the latter (sixty different languages are said to be spoken in the streets of Freetown), Mohammedanism is increasing more rapidly than Christianity, education is making no progress, and, at a short distance from the coast, slavery and barbarism are rife which the civilized natives make no effort to overcome. This is a disheartening outlook, especially considering the peculiar interest attaching to this colony as the headquarters in Africa of the abolition movement.

A short but interesting account is given of the islands of the South Atlantic, Ascension, which is garrisoned by marines and rated as a ship of war, and St. Helena, whose decrease in importance and consequent gradual decay since the opening of the Suez Canal is the most noteworthy fact, and Tristan d'Acunha and Gough Island. Several useful maps and lists of reference books and an excellent index add to the value of this volume, which contains, besides historical facts, accounts of the government of the various colonies, their present commercial condition, and their relations to the rest of the world.

Oliver Cromwell: A History, comprising a narrative of his life, with extracts from his letters and speeches, and an account of the political, religious, and military affairs of England during his time. By Samuel Harden Church. With portraits and maps. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1894. Pp. 524, 8vo.

"WHEN reading Hume's 'History of England' some years ago," says Mr. Church, "his severe treatment of Oliver Cromwell impressed me as being unjust and overdrawn. In turning to Thomas Carlyle for a fairer view, the supernal garb in which he dressed the hero was found equally unsatisfactory." Mr. Church accordingly determined, very judiciously, to adopt a middle course. Between the Epicurean scepticism of Hume and the transcendental hero-worship of Carlyle it is not so difficult to sail as between Scylla and Charybdis, and Mr. Church's barque has safely made the passage. But we looked for a special essay on the life and character of Cromwell. Instead of this we have a general history, which, being much condensed, cannot be very lively or flowing. The spirit of the work is fair enough, but we do not see that new light is thrown on any picture of Cromwell's character or on any point of his often enigmatic career. Mr. Church occasionally quotes Mr. Gardiner in his notes, but he does not mention him in his preface, and he does not seem to be aware that Mr. Gardiner had done the work. He tells us that he has formed a very complete library of Cromwellian literature. He would have done us a service by giving us a catalogue, with a critical estimate, as far as possible, of the value of the different authorities.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alma-Tadema, Laurence. The Wings of Icarus. Macmillan. $1.25.
Annals of the American Academy. Vol. IV. June, 1893—June, 1894. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science.
Appleton, Robert. After the Manner of Men. Boston: Franklin Publishing Co. $1.
Atkinson, James. The Loves of Laili and Majnún. London: David Nutt.
Ayres, Alfred. Acting and Actors. Appletons.
Baldwin, C. S. The Inflections and Syntax of the Morte d'Arthur of Sir Thomas Malory. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Bangs, J. K. Three Weeks in Politics. Harpers. 50 cents.
Bertheroy, J. Le Mime Bathylle. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Bishop, W. H. A Pound of Cure: A Story of Monte Carlo. Scribners. $1.
Bormann, E. Das Shakespeare-Geheimniss. Leipzig: E. Bormann; New York: Westermann.
Brooks, Noah. Tales of the Maine Coast. Scribners.
Bourget, P. Steeple Chase. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Frères & Cie.
Cameron, Prof. A. G. Mérimée's Colomba. Henry Holt & Co. 60 cents.
Chambers, R. W. In the Quarter. Chicago: F. T. Neely.
Chaperoned. Cassell. 50 cents.
Chatard, Rev. F. S. Occasional Essays. Catholic Publication Society.
Classical Studies, in Honor of Henry Drisler. Macmillan. $4.
Colmore, G. A Daughter of Music. Appletons.
Conder, Major C. R. Judas Maccabæus and the Jewish War of Independence. New ed. Macmillan. $1.25.
Davis, R. H. Van Bibber and Others. Harpers. 60 cents.
Dodd, Anna B. Struthers, and the Comedy of the Masked Musicians. Lovell, Coryell & Co.
Dornis, Jean. La Voie Douloureuse. Paris: Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel.
Emmons, S. F. Geological Guide-Book for an Excursion to the Rocky Mountains. John Wiley & Sons.
En Pique-Nique, 1894. Publication Annuelle du Comité de la Société des Gens de Lettres. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Firth, C. H. The Memoirs of Edmund Ludlow. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Frye, A. E. Primary Geography. Boston: Ginn & Co. 75 cents.
Greenidge, A. H. J. Infamia: Its Place in Roman Public and Private Law. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Harlow, W. B. Columbia Redeemed from Slavery: Poetry. Buffalo: Charles Wells Moulton.
Hastings, George. A Tale of the Town. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Hill, W. K. William Henry Widgery, Schoolmaster. London: David Nutt.
Hoffman, Prof. F. S. The Sphere of the State. Putnams. $1.50.
Howells, W. D. Five o'Clock Tea. Harpers. 50 cents.
Jackson, J. The Theory and Practice of Handwriting. Revised ed. Wm. Beverley Harrison. $1.25.
Lafontaine, H. La Jolie Painepolaise. Paris: Lévy; New York: Charles Eitel.
Larned, J. N. History for Ready Reference. Vol. II.—El Dorado to Greaves. Springfield: C. A. Nichols Co.
Le Gallienne, R. Prose Fancies. Putnams. $1.
Le Mariage de Chiffon. 14th ed. Paris; Lévy; New York; Charles Eitel.
Lombard, L. Observations of a Traveller. Utica, N. Y.: The Author. 50 cents.
Maspero, G. Histoire Ancienne des Peuples d'Orient. Tome I. Paris: Hachette; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Maxwell, W. H. First Book in English. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Maxwell, W. H. Introductory Lessons in English Grammar. American Book Co. 40 cents.
Memoirs of the International Congress of Anthropology. Chicago: Schulte Publishing Co.
Miller, Olive T. Our Home Pets: How to keep them well and happy. Harpers. $1.25.
Moore, George. Esther Waters. Chicago: C. H. Sergel Co. 50 cents.
Moore, G. Esther Waters. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Myer, Isaac. Scarabs: History, Manufacture and Religious Symbolism. Edwin W. Dayton.
Naville, Prof. E. La Définition de la Philosophie. Geneva: Georg & Cie.: New York: Brentanos. $1.50.
Newton, Rev. W. W. A Run through Russia: The Story of a Visit to Count Tolstoi. Hartford: Student Publishing Co. $1.
Our Wonderful Bodies and How to Take Care of Them. First Book, 30c. Second Book, 50c. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Peard, Frances M. An Interloper: A Novel. Harpers.
Pennypacker, S. W. Hendrick Pannebecker, Surveyor of Lands for the Penns, 1674—1754. Philadelphia: Privately printed.
Perry, Prof. A. L. Origins in Williamstown. Scribners.
Posse, Baron Nils. The Special Kinesiology of Educational Gymnastics. 3d ed. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $3.
Prévost, M. Les Demi-Vierges. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Frères & Cie.
Proceedings of the International Congress of Education at Chicago, 1893. National Educational Association of the U. S.
Putnam-Jacobi, Dr. Mary. Common Sense applied to Woman Suffrage. Putnams. $1.
Ramsey, M. M. A Text-Book of Modern Spanish. Henry Holt & Co. $1.80.
Ramsay, Prof. G. G. Latin Prose Versions, contributed by Various Scholars. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Richardson, F. B. Six Months' Preparation for Reading Cæsar. 2d ed. Henry Holt & Co. 90 cents.
Rothwell, R. P. The Mineral Industry: Its Statistics, Technology and Trade. Vol. II., 1893. Scientific Publishing Co. $5.
Ruskin, J. Verona, and Other Lectures. Macmillan. $2.50.
Russell, W. Clark. The Romance of a Transport. Cassell. $1.
Rutgers, L. On and Off the Saddle. Putnams.
Salomons, Sir David. Electric Light Installations. Vol. II. Apparatus. 7th ed. London: Whittaker; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. $2.25.
Savage, R. H. The Princess of Alaska. Chicago: F. T. Neely. 50 cents.
Selections from the Poems of Arthur Hugh Clough. Macmillan. $1.
Shakespeare's Comedy of Errors. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 45 cents.
Shakespeare's Measure for Measure. [The Temple Shakspere.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 45 cents.
Simcox, E. J. Primitive Civilizations: Outlines of the History of Ownership in Archaic Communities. 2 vols. Macmillan. $10.
Stevens, B. F. Christopher Columbus: His Own Book of Privileges, 1502. London: B. F. Stevens; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.
Stevens, Dr. A. H. Cure by Polarized Electricity. Philadelphia: The Author.
Stevens's Facsimiles of MS. in European Archives relating to America, 1773-1783. Vol. XXI. London: B. F. Stevens.
Stuart, Ruth McE. Carlotta's Intended, and Other Tales. Harpers. $1.50.
The Hon. Stanbury, and Others. Putnams. 50 cents.
The Major in Washington City. Second series. Chicago: F. T. Neely.
The Red House. Rand, McNally & Co.
Tompkins, A. The Philosophy of Teaching. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Thompson, Annie. A Moral Dilemma. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Thompson, Langdon S. Educational and Industrial Drawing. Series. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Thurston, Prof. R. H. The Animal as a Machine and Prime Motor. John Wiley & Sons. $1.
Valdes, A. P. The Grandee: A Novel. London: William Heinemann.
Venn, Mrs. The Husband of One Wife. Harpers. 6 cents.
Wallace, E. R. Descriptive Guide to the Adirondacks. Revised ed. Syracuse, N. Y.: E. R. Wallace. $3.50.
Way, Arthur S. The Tragedies of Euripides, in English Verse. Vol. I. Macmillan. $2.
Weed, C. M. Fungi and Fungicides: A Practical Manual. Orange Judd Co. $1.
Wells, A. R. Business: A Plain Talk with Men and Women Who Work. Fleming H. Revell Co. 35 cents.
Wolf, Emma. A Prodigal in Love. Harpers.

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